



1975

The Use of Paraprofessionals in Disadvantaged Area Public Schools of Chicago

William Melrose Jones

Loyola University Chicago

Recommended Citation

Jones, William Melrose, "The Use of Paraprofessionals in Disadvantaged Area Public Schools of Chicago" (1975). *Dissertations*. Paper 1468.

http://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_diss/1468

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses and Dissertations at Loyola eCommons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Loyola eCommons. For more information, please contact ecommons@luc.edu.



This work is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-No Derivative Works 3.0 License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/).

Copyright © 1975 William Melrose Jones

ABSTRACT

THE USE OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN
DISADVANTAGED AREA PUBLIC
SCHOOLS OF CHICAGO

William Melrose Jones

June

1975

William Melrose Jones
Loyola University of Chicago

THE USE OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN
DISADVANTAGED AREA PUBLIC
SCHOOLS OF CHICAGO

This investigation is concerned with the use of specific paraprofessionals--teacher aides, school-community representatives and civilian school security aides--as a strategy for improving the administrative and educative processes in disadvantaged area public schools in Chicago.

The study seeks to determine if the role functions and services which the aforementioned paraprofessionals provide to the schools and community modify attitudes, values, and assumptions that improve the operation of the schools, and the attainment of its goals.

Specific questions were asked in questionnaires to administrators, teachers, parents and students who had been served by these paraprofessionals to obtain a perceptual assessment of their impact on administration, learning and teaching. The questionnaires were designed to obtain perceptual assessments from administrators, teachers, parents and students. One hundred questionnaire

responses were obtained from administrators, teachers, parents and students who were randomly sampled from schools having predominantly Black, Spanish-surnamed and Appalachian White students.

In addition, interviews using the questionnaires and supplemental questions were conducted with: ten students; ten parents; ten teachers; ten principals; five directors; four district superintendents; two assistant superintendents; two area associate superintendents.

The interview data and the responses to the questionnaires comprised the total data for the study. Seven hypotheses were set up, based on the questionnaires and interviews. All seven hypotheses were accepted by the data.

The conclusions based on the data findings are that the role functions and services provided by the specific paraprofessionals in this study contribute meaningfully and significantly, and have a positive impact on the administrative and educative processes in disadvantaged area public schools in Chicago.

THE USE OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN
DISADVANTAGED AREA PUBLIC
SCHOOLS OF CHICAGO

by

William Melrose Jones

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

June

1975

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many individuals, too numerous to mention, assisted and cooperated in many ways to make this manuscript possible. To those administrators, teachers, students, parents, friends and colleagues, I express sincere gratitude.

Deserving special mention because of their vast and glorious assistance are: my wife, for her cooperation, patience, encouragement and assistance during the months of preparing the manuscript; Mrs. Ina Turner, who provided critical and constructive judgments and assistance in every aspect of this study; Mr. James Hall, for his able assistance and forbearance with the statistical procedures; and the members of my dissertation committee, Drs. Smith, Bailey, Valenti and Heller, whose suggestions and guidance were invaluable.

VITA

The author, William Melrose Jones, was born in Gary, West Virginia, in July, 1917.

He attended public schools in West Virginia and Chicago, graduating from DuBois High School, Mt. Hope, West Virginia, and received a BS degree from West Virginia State College in June, 1939.

After working as a policeman and investigator for the City of Chicago and the Chicago Transit Authority for 13 years, he began a career as a teacher at Mosley Social Adjustment School in 1957. He received an MA degree from DePaul University (Chicago) in August, 1960.

From 1965 to 1970, he served as director of the Neighborhood Youth Corps work-training program for the Chicago public schools. In 1970, he became director of the Bureau of Dropout Prevention Programs for the Chicago public schools, and currently serves in this position.

He is married to the former Nina Agnes Flemister, and they have two sons. He is a member of Phi Delta Kappa professional educational organization, and Kappa Alpha Psi social fraternity.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
VITA	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vii
CONTENTS OF APPENDICES	ix
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Chronological Review	4
Statement of the Problem	16
Rationales for the Study	22
Hypotheses	28
Purpose of the Study	31
Delimitations of the Study	34
Significance of the Study	35
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	44
Paraprofessionals--Historical Review and Current Status	45
Cultural and Economic Deprivation Status-- Its Effect on Education	62
The Problems of Racism, Segregation, and Discrimination on Big Cith Schools	80

Family Disorganization--An Education Handicap	97
Language Differences and Deficits-- Effect on Educational Attainment	111
Summary	120
III. RESEARCH DESIGN	129
Subjects	129
Interviews	131
Materials	132
Procedures	134
Statistical Techniques	138
Interview Statistics	143
Data and Distribution Collection Chart . . .	144
IV. RESULTS OF THE STUDY	146
Hypothesis 1	146
Hypothesis 2	147
Hypothesis 3	147
Hypothesis 4	147
Hypothesis 5	148
Hypothesis 6	148
Hypothesis 7	148

Summary and Administrative Implications of Data Findings	187
V. CONCLUSIONS, ANALYSES AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . .	194
Conclusions	196
Analyses	203
Recommendations	208
REFERENCES	211
APPENDIX A	223
APPENDIX B	230
APPENDIX C	234
APPENDIX D	241

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table	
1. Hypothesis 1 - Results of Teacher Aide Position	149
2. Hypothesis 1 - Results of School-Community Representative Position	151
3. Hypothesis 1 - Results of Civilian School Security Aide Position	153
4. Hypothesis 2 - Results of Teacher Aide Position	154
5. Hypothesis 2 - Results of School-Community Representative Position	156
6. Hypothesis 3 - Results of Teacher Aide Position	158
7. Hypothesis 3 - Results of School-Community Representative Position	160
8. Hypothesis 3 - Results of Civilian School Security Aide Position	163
9. Hypothesis 4 - Results of Teacher Aide Position	165
10. Hypothesis 4 - Results of School-Community Representative Position	167
11. Hypothesis 4 - Results of Civilian School Security Aide Position	168

12.	Hypothesis 5 - Results of Teacher Aide Position	172
13.	Hypothesis 5 - Results of School-Community Representative Position	173
14.	Hypothesis 5 - Results of Civilian School Security Aide Position	176
15.	Hypothesis 6 - Results of Teacher Aide Position	177
16.	Hypothesis 6 - Results of School-Community Representative Position	179
17.	Hypothesis 6 - Results of Civilian School Security Aide Position	180
18.	Hypothesis 7 - Results of Teacher Aide Position	181
19.	Hypothesis 7 - Results of School-Community Representative Position	183
20.	Hypothesis 7 - Results of Civilian School Security Aide Position	186

CONTENTS FOR APPENDICES

	Page
APPENDIX A Administrator-Teacher Questionnaires . . .	223
I. Letter of Request to Admininistrator-Teacher . . .	223
II. Administrator and Teacher Questionnaire on Teacher Aides	224
III. Administrator and Teacher Questionnaire on School-Community Representatives	226
IV. Administrator and Teacher Questionnaire on Civilian School Security Aides	228
APPENDIX B Parent Questionnaires	230
I. Letter to Parents and Other Community Adults . . .	230
II. Parent Questionnaire on Teacher Aides	231
III. Parent Questionnaire on School-Community Representatives	232
IV. Parent Questionnaire on Civilian School Security Aides	233
APPENDIX C Student Questionnaires	234
I. Letter to Students	234
II. Student Questionnaire on Teacher Aides	235
III. Student Questionnaire on School-Community Representatives	237
IV. Student Questionnaire on Civilian School Security Aide	239
APPENDIX D Definitions of Terms	241

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Much of the furor, conflict and confusion in education today stems from the many ideas, opinions and concepts relating to education, learning, and teaching that have no research or factual basis. Too many laymen and professionals alike are spreading fallacies and myths regarding education to a credulous and naive public. The situation is perhaps amenable to the nature of education which is a practical science, rather than a theoretic science.

Aristotle separated the sciences into three categories more than 2200 years ago according to their purposes. Theoretic sciences, such as mathematics and physics, have knowledge as their main purpose. The practical sciences have as their purposes action, potentialities and things which may be modified by human intelligence and volition. Educating human beings is a practical science and does not lend itself to principles

that are as precise as mathematics. The productive sciences are the arts, and are concerned with making rather than doing. Art, music, and architecture are included in this category.

Aristotle was more than Plato's brightest student. He was one of civilization's geniuses, and his distinction on the natures and purposes of the sciences, along with his invention of the syllogism as a form of deductive reasoning, more than validates this assertion. His theory on the nature of the three sciences is pointed out here to illustrate two imperative axioms relating to education:

1. Education is a practical science, since it is concerned with doing. Educators, therefore, cannot form universal principles about the practical subject matter which relates to the education process. Albeit, there are educating principles that are sound, rational and reliable. They are not infallible at all times--there is always a margin of error. Nonetheless, this does not make the knowledgeable and proficient educator any less a scientist than the proficient medical man who also deals in a non-theoretic science--a productive science. A proficient, knowledgeable expert on education is due the same respect

as an expert as a similar surgeon or physician of like status. Yet, the judgment of an educator is far more likely to be challenged by those outside the field than the judgment of a physician and surgeon.

2. There are some businesses and industrialists who are prone to compare the science of educating to that of producing a product, and it is assumed that a successful procedure, theory and practice relative to operation of a successful business can be transferred to education. Such thinking is a fallacy in false analogy. Education is a practical science, and the principles which operate in a practical science of doing are not the same as those operative in the productive science of making. Consequently, despite good intentions and the existence of the management element in both education and business, they are different sciences and operate under a different set of principles. The inference is not being made here that only educators know about education. Indeed, there are some quacks, inept, unenlightened and intellectually dishonest educators. Some expert educators are without the greatest of all virtues--courage, to communicate their wisdom to the proper people. There are also lay people

outside the field of education who are interested, and have ardously kept abreast and updated on philosophy and knowledge related to current validated educational theories and practices. It is these people who should speak out and be heard. It is further suggested here that those whose judgments and pronouncements on education affect the policies of children being educated should check their beliefs against the latest accepted education theories and practices as determined by the current validated knowledge in the field of education, based on educational research. This is operating on the basis of the scientific method--the way business operates. Education does not consist only in teaching people to know what they should know, but in teaching people to behave in the manner in which they should behave.

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

Since the beginning of public education during the middle nineteenth century, our American society has assigned formidable and difficult obligations to this institution and continues to do so ad infinitum. Today,

society is requesting the school to "manufacture" middle class citizens out of disadvantaged children. This is almost an impossible task, since the schools are conditioned and influenced by the social order.

Society has not granted the school any mandate to change that social order. The schools did manufacture American citizens out of foreign immigrants, albeit the task was fraught with agony and frustration. There is confidence that the disadvantaged can be transformed, but not without tortuous, grinding turmoil and chaos, and huge allocations of funds. The grandiose expectations now held for the schools (which have continued to proliferate with the years) were present to a large extent in the original package which the proponents of public education persuaded us to accept in the 1830's.

In the words of Horace Mann, "Education, then, beyond all other devices of human origin, is the equalizer of the conditions of men--the balance wheel of the social machinery." The industrial society that first adopted public education was aware of its needs for clerks, managers, teachers, physicians, lawyers, and others in need of literacy skills. The society was also mindful that

citizens who could read the bible, the laws of the land, and engage in literacy activities were less likely to be swayed by demagogues; that children needed the socialization provided by schools so that they would become obedient and reliable workers; that a heterogenous population posed a threat to political stability and could be brought under control by using the schools to teach the American way of life and assimilate the diverse ethnic groups coming to our shores.

Historically, public education has been called upon to perform some monumental tasks. The fulfillment of these tasks has been considered essential to the national welfare, and categorical federal aid has been allocated to provide and to assist local and state aid in the establishment of special programs. When this country needed military and mechanically trained young men to promote its military, economic and political interest, land grant colleges were established under the Morrill Act of 1862. When agricultural and homemaking skills and trainings were urgently needed by the rural communities of the country, the Smith-Lever Act was enacted in 1914. When the urgently felt need for vocational education became a

priority for the secondary schools, the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 was enacted. The Morrill Act, the Smith-Lever Act, and the Smith-Hughes Act provided the impetus and resources that made the United States a leading nation of the world in military leadership, scientific agriculture and engineering development.

The National Youth Administration was a work-relief and training program needed during the depression years, and was enacted by Congress for secondary and college students in 1935, lasting through 1944. The G.I. Bill of Rights of 1944, an education act to provide veterans education, was a response to pressing needs for veteran education and training.

The National Youth Administration (NYA) program was not a public school project, yet, it and the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) made use of some school methods, personnel, and clients in accomplishing their tasks. The G.I. Bill of Rights program was partially implemented through training provided through industry and business, even though many veterans obtained high school and college diplomas through this program.

The National Defense Education Act of 1958 was a direct response to the Russian Sputnik launching which signaled possible Russian dominance in space technology. Federal funds were immediately made available for mathematics, science, foreign languages, and other subjects related to the space program. Again, the public schools were called upon to upgrade those aspects of the educational program which provide the technology needed to be a competitor in the world space race.

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 made public training available in mult-vocational skills through the schools and private industry. The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 was developed to help eradicate poverty and provide for early childhood education and work-training programs for the disadvantaged. Head Start and the Neighborhood Youth Corps were among the educational programs included in the Act. These two programs were predominantly established in the public schools.

The debilitating and wretched consequences of discrimination and poverty have operated to make a mockery out of the fundamental American principle of equality of educational opportunity. This principle has never re-

ceived more attention and been more in the forefront than in recent years. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 mandated that the Commissioner of Education conduct a survey on the availability of equality of educational opportunities for all, in all levels of public education, and report the findings to the President and Congress. This report, commonly known as the "Coleman Report," came out in 1966. Its findings have been the subject of much controversy and conflict.

The point emphasized and documented in this brief historical scenario is that from the very beginning of the public school movement, society has had enormous expectations for, and placed expansive obligations on, public education to solve various kinds of problems requiring special knowledge, skills and know-how. Today, the problem of adequate, equal and appropriate education for the disadvantaged and the poor is a major national crisis that affects the national welfare and has dismal implications for large cities. It is a gnarled and confounding problem that presents an unprecedented challenge to those in the education profession. Furthermore, the problem has reached the crisis stage because of the social ills cor-

related with, and ascribed to, inadequate education for the disadvantaged.

Conant (1961) and the U. S. Riot Commission Report (1968) both comment on the ills of dope addiction, unemployed young people, crime, increased welfare costs, riots and wretched lives which emanate from educational neglect in the large cities. Those in control of education are concerned and apprehensive lest experts in the field of education perhaps do not have the solution to the crisis. For despite the abiding American faith in public education, similar faith in public educators is absent. Perhaps this is because public education is a uniquely striking institution, more vulnerable to criticism than other institutions.

To illustrate, we do not blame the medical profession for not finding a cure for cancer, nor business for the economic recession; however, the schools are held accountable for literacy training, albeit there are other critical factors involved over which the school has very little control. Conant (1961) points out that the nature of the community largely determines what goes on in the school. Therefore, to attempt to divorce the school from

the community is to engage in unrealistic thinking. The school and the community are inseparable.

Goodson (1960), in the 59th Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, cautions that the school should create a more life-like culture for the child, and become more continuous with the out-of-school life of the child. It is ultimate futility for the educator to maintain standards of behavior in schools which are at variance with the child's outside life--which is more potent in involving the child than the school activities. It is further pointed out in Goodson's discussion that the community determines the social order and total cultural complex surrounding the child. The school must operate within the community's expectations. Incompatibility of this total complex and conflicting cultural forces in the community reduces considerably the effectiveness of the school.

Because public education is derived from the cultural mainstream of the social order and conditioned by its constraining forces, it inevitably reflects the culture. This characteristic renders public education highly vulnerable to the changing moods, anxieties and

aspirations of the adult population. By clear implication, children's education is influenced overwhelmingly by the significant adults in their lives in their preparation for first school attendance and early school years.

Essentially, to summarize the last few paragraphs with their implications, it can be said that the culture must reinforce and sanction the school. If the culture is different and conflicts with that of the school, there must be intervention by cultural members for cultural modification. Frost (1971) comments that no educational program can succeed without parental reinforcement, and that the best reinforcement agents are adults who are indigenous and have influence with the community.

Stone (1971) makes the penetrating observation that school personnel in the United States must abandon their attack upon the cultures of the disadvantaged, and help them develop their potential for self-realization. The function of the public schools should be to teach children literacy and other education goals, not serve as a coercive instrument of culture change.

The culture change goals of the middle class oriented school is antagonistic to the disadvantaged student,

and invites hostility, withdrawal and alienation on the part of the student.

The materials and techniques used for middle class students frequently are not appropriate for disadvantaged children. Reese (1968) avers that the schools must serve the parents of the disadvantaged children, and that cultural changes when needed should be initiated by indigenous community people who perceive the needs and rewards of the cultural changes and who have rapport with the community.

The Chicago public schools have used paraprofessionals in diverse functions--both in the schools and in the communities. Preliminary assessments on the use of paraprofessionals indicate that they have been largely effective.

A primary objective of this study is to obtain a perceptive evaluation on specific indigenous paraprofessionals from those students, teachers, parents and administrators who have been directly involved with the paraprofessionals.

A demographic view of the Chicago scene for the last twenty-five years shows that since 1950, more than 700,000 middle and working class Whites have migrated from

the city of Chicago. During this same period, a like number of poor Blacks, Latins and rural Whites have replaced them as a part of the city population (United States Department of Commerce, 1972). The report documenting this population exchange in Chicago indicates that a similar kind of exchange has occurred in all of the nation's largest cities. How has this vast change in urban population affected public education? The population change vastly increased the number of disadvantaged children in Chicago from about two out of five to more than one out of two, and with this explosive increase in the number of disadvantaged children, the problem of properly educating them has been intensified. The pervasiveness of this problem in all of the big cities clearly marks it as national, and not just local, in scope.

The manifestations and implications of the problems which arise from attempts at education for the disadvantaged are frightening and distressing. They depict squandered human resources; dysfunctional youth (in terms of literacy and skills) who are unemployed, hopeless and alienated; the accumulation of tens of thousands of school

dropouts; mounting crime and despair; and a tragic loss in self-respect and human dignity.

Robert J. Havighurst (1964), in his classic study of the Chicago public schools, admonished the city that the most important challenge facing Chicago, as it considered a program of public education, was to provide adequately for the education of the disadvantaged. The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 provided Chicago some categorical compensatory assistance from the federal government that allowed for some experimentation in educational programs that have proven helpful to the disadvantaged.

Among the programs that have shown remarkable promise and have made some impact on the disadvantaged in Chicago were programs using community-based paraprofessionals as teacher aides, school-community representatives and civilian security aides. These paraprofessionals were used in classrooms, lunchrooms, corridors, libraries, and throughout the (poverty areas) school facilities during the late 1960's. The services provided by the paraprofessionals were laudably proclaimed by administrators,

teachers, parents, and students. This lead to the expansion of using paraprofessionals with funds from the Emergency Employment Act in 1971. The enthusiasm, demands and clamor for paraprofessionals continued in poverty area schools beyond the phase-out of the Emergency Employment Act program in early 1974.

The Board of Education responded to this expressed need by using paraprofessionals to fill most of its job slots allocated, through the Comprehensive Employment Training Act program which is designed to hire the unemployed in public service jobs.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

"How to provide adequate, functional, and equal educational opportunities to the disadvantaged Chicago public school children in poverty area schools."

The following comments on public education are the substance of the Mondale Report (1972):

A primary goal of public education since its inception during the middle part of the 19th century has been to provide adequate and equal educational opportuni-

ties for the children it serves. Generally, formal education is an important determinant of the lifetime opportunities of individuals in America, with few exceptions. In a large measure, the schools select persons to fulfill the hierarchy of social, political and economic roles of our society. Those who receive the more and better schooling are in a better position in a schooling-dependent society to obtain the highest earnings, most preferable occupations, and the best jobs.

The concept of equality in public education is as old as public education itself, and closely linked to this concept is that of equality and opportunity. Equality of educational opportunity does not represent a quest for a non-stratified, classless society; nor does it assume that there will be an equality of outcomes; but it does represent a search for fairness in the pursuit of life's rewards.

Out of the ferment and discussions on universal public schooling in this country emanated one maxim that stands out among the most important on public schooling-- education is the best path for providing equal opportunity among children from diverse circumstances. In the words of Horace Mann:

The common school is the greatest discovery ever made by man. Let the common school be expanded to its capabilities, let it be worked with the efficiency of which it is susceptible and nine-tenths of the crimes in the penal code would become obsolete, the long catalogue of human ills would be abridged; property, life and character held by a stronger tenure; all rational hopes respecting the future brighter.

The foregoing and following paragraphs illustrate the esteem and the paramount priority of public education in our society. One of our most popular presidents, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, proclaimed, "We have faith in education as the foundation of democratic government." Public education is a cherished imperative because it is the basis of all those things that comprise what our society deems the "good life." Knowledge, wisdom, technology, health, wealth, happiness, and success emanate from education.

George Washington advised Congress in his first message that knowledge is the surest basis for happiness in every country, and that it is essential that knowledge be diffused for public opinion to be enlightened.

America was the first country to advance public education for all, and one of our greatest scholars and philosophers, Robert M. Hutchins, asserted, "Perhaps the greatest idea that America has given to the world is the

idea of education for all." It is a great idea, but to fulfill the idea is a monumental task.

To be presented in this study are discussions and analyses of some of the major problems which act as barriers to the education of the disadvantaged, and to assess how the use of specific paraprofessions in the school and the community contributes to the solution of the educational problem. This assessment is made by utilizing an instrument which yields a perceptive evaluation on paraprofessionals by the students, parents, teachers, and administrators who have been directly involved with them.

Perhaps it is appropriate to now briefly review the disadvantaged and the problems that affect their education. It is difficult to document the exact number of disadvantaged children in Chicago, but well over half the children attending the public schools exhibit economic and cultural characteristics that designate them as disadvantaged.

The term "disadvantaged" in this study refers to that segment of the population which is suffering from cultural and economic deprivation, and follows a lifestyle

that is very near or below the poverty level. Their disadvantaged status makes it difficult for them to fulfill many of the social demands of society or take advantage of the many opportunities open to them.

The one common denominator of the disadvantaged is poverty. This is not to infer that all poor children have learning problems--some of the poor do well in school. Nonetheless, the disadvantaged students are overwhelmingly poor, exhibit the greatest and severest educational retardation, and are in the greatest need of compensatory and supplemental education. The dropout rate among the disadvantaged frequently exceeds 50 percent, and their participation in higher education is considerably below the national norm.

Along with the inadequate academic attainment, the poverty area schools also have excess discipline problems, high dropout rates, attendance problems, and racial imbalance. More than half of the poverty level Black children come from homes headed by females. Others come from homes where English is a second language.

The poor education attainment of Chicago's poverty area students is well documented, and the concern has now

reached a furor which is highlighted through the public communication media. Newspapers and television stations conduct surveys, whose implied purpose is to pinpoint the source of the problems associated with the inadequate education of the city's public school children--more than half of whom are disadvantaged.

The analysis of low level academic attainment by the disadvantaged has been engaged in by educators and laymen without any consensus on the reasons for the low level attainment. The controversy over why the disadvantaged are educationally retarded seems to be now focused on the educational deprivation versus cultural deprivation theory. Most teachers, counselors, and many administrators blame deficit experiential background and poor preparation by the home as the major cause. This is known as the cultural deprivation theory. Most parents of the disadvantaged, and many laymen, blame inept and non-committed teachers, inappropriate techniques and materials, and general apathy and failure by the whole educational establishment. This is the educational deprivation theory.

The controversy over the why of the failure of the disadvantaged to measure up to the middle class students

will continue unabated and unresolved until some convincing research producing practical results resolves the issue. Most educational studies indicate that the problem is multi-faceted, and there is a need for intervention into the home; more parental involvement and education; new teaching techniques and materials; an end to racial segregation and discrimination; the use of paraprofessionals and other compensatory programs. There is no obvious panacea for the resolution of such a complex problem as educating the disadvantaged. There are some fundamental knowledge, principles and techniques that can be applied in offsetting the barriers and problems which beset the education of the disadvantaged. These will be discussed and pointed out throughout the study.

RATIONALES FOR THE STUDY

There are four rationales impelling this study. One, research on the disadvantaged is imperative because of the unabated increase in this student category in the Chicago public schools.

The unabated increase in the number of disadvantaged children who populate the Chicago public schools

compels the initiation of active research projects to explore finding more effective methods to educate our disadvantaged, and to expand the utilization of effective methods. The community has obliged the public schools with preparing and equipping the children of this city to realize their potential, and to become economically productive and socially competent citizens. This obligation and additional commitments are part of the written objectives of the Chicago public schools. If the schools fail in this responsibility, they jeopardize public support and their very existence.

Two, the Chicago public schools' staff who work with the disadvantaged have a professional obligation to do active research on the disadvantaged with the urban universities whenever the opportunity is available. More than 50 percent of poverty area students do not finish high school (High School Dropout Report, 1973-74), and the reading achievement levels of the overwhelming majority of poverty area students are between the 7th and 25th percentile in Chicago (Citywide Testing Report, 1972-73).

It should be a felt obligation of staff members, whose duties are directly related to the disadvantaged, to

conduct active research and studies that have promise of discovering methods of improving their education. As the director of the Bureau of Dropout Prevention Programs, the writer administered the Emergency Employment Act program from 1971 to 1974. Approximately 500 paraprofessionals were hired to work in the schools through the EEA program. Observations and surface evaluations indicated specific paraprofessionals had an impact on the educative and administrative processes. This study attempts to go into more depth in determining this impact.

Three, Chicago's survival as a stabilized and economically vital city is directly linked to its ability to educate its disadvantaged students in the public schools. The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders made the following observation on poverty inner city schools (Kerner Report, 1968, p. 525):

Many of those whose recent acts threaten the domestic safety and tear at the roots of the American democracy, are the products of yesterday's inadequate and neglected inner city schools. The greatest unused and underdeveloped human resources in America are to be found in the deteriorating cores of America's urban centers.

The bleak record of public education for poverty area urban children is improving too slowly and too little.

The Kerner Report suggests further that we cannot afford to lose another generation of young Americans who live in the ghettos of the poverty inner city. The report makes the crucial appraisal that was the core of its evaluation on the urban inner city schools--the schools and children of the ghettos cannot be appraised apart from the values and attitudes of the apathetic environment from which they come.

James B. Conant (1961) also cautions Americans that the failure to adequately educate slum inner city children is tantamount to allowing social dynamite to accumulate in our large cities. Conant indicates that his concern for the inner city dropouts and poorly educated graduates and their parents exceeds his concern for the suburban parents who have some difficulty enrolling their children in a prestige college. Conant further asserts that a continuation of the present situation in the inner city schools is a menace to the social, political and economic health of the large cities.

The Conant line of thinking is echoed and emphasized by Chicago demographer Pierre de Vise who has warned that failure to educate and bring Blacks and other

minority groups into the "system" will result in guerrilla warfare. For those who take such warnings and cautions as the screamings of an alarmist, be reminded that the East Woodlawn community on Chicago's South Side has suffered the abandonment of 25 to 30 percent of its buildings within a four or five year period. Many buildings have been burned from arson.

Information from community, school, business and civic leaders recounted many incidents and stories of terror, extortion, burglary, robbery, and pillage by youth street gang members--most of whom were school dropouts. Police records on juveniles in the Chicago Police Youth Bureau indicate that teenagers who are dropouts or truants commit three to eight times as many crimes as students who attend school regularly. Recent statistics from the Police Department indicate that juvenile crime has increased 42 percent in Chicago during the last decade. The correlation and linkage between youth dropping out of school and becoming criminal offenders is unquestionably documented. The average cost of maintaining a youth in an institution is approximately \$7,000 per year. There is available evidence documenting that particular alternative

programs for dropout-prone youth, which match with their background and needs, would significantly reduce the dropout rate and thereby reduce crime. Funds available for crime reduction are most difficult to secure for crime preventive educational programs.

Finally, the fourth and last rationale impelling this study is the exigent need for research on the improvement of the administrative processes in disadvantaged school areas. Burden (1973) contends that the primary role of the principal is to create an atmosphere and climate that insures creative productivity and meaningful learning in the classroom. As an educational leader, the principal or school administrator is an effective member of a group who creates conditions that promote growth among all its members--students, teachers, and the administrator. People grow when there is a climate of warmth, trust, and acceptance of personal worth. They also grow when communication is open, when people have an opportunity to determine their own educational goals, and evaluate their progress toward these goals. To obtain these conditions, parents must become actively involved in the formation and development of school goals, and participate

Hypothesis 1

The services provided by specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools contribute significantly to meaningful improvements in parental orientation, involvement and reinforcements that enhances the administrative and educative processes.

Hypothesis 2

The role functions of specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools were conducive to significant and meaningful improvements in home intervention, needed student referrals, student self-images and parent-teacher rapport which facilitated the administration of the school and the childrens' education.

Hypothesis 3

The employment of specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools had a benign impact on classroom activities, teacher-student morale, classroom atmosphere, and good teaching and learning which improved the effective operation and administration of these schools.

Hypothesis 4

The utilization of specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools improved security, reduced or prevented drug traffic, vandalism and gang activities--all of which improved the administrative-educative processes.

Hypothesis 5

The routine services rendered by specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged Chicago public schools provided public service career models, motivation for educational attainment, and generated benign student and parent attitudes which facilitated the successful administration and operation of these schools.

Hypothesis 6

The jobs performed by specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools contributed significantly to improved school attendance, student enjoyment of school, and school holding power which enhanced the effective operation and administration of these schools.

Hypothesis 7

The role functions of specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools contributed significantly to the facilitation of modified cultural changes, attitudes and aspirations regarding education, occupations, and social mobility which improved the administrative and educative processes.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to make an in-depth perceptual assessment of the roles of the teacher aide, school-community representative and civilian security aide, and to determine from this assessment the impact of these paraprofessionals' roles on the administrative and educative processes in disadvantaged schools. Certain functional and operational components of the disadvantaged schools are presumed in this study to be affected significantly, and influenced meaningfully and positively by the roles performed by the paraprofessionals investigated.

The decision to use paraprofessionals as part of a differentiated staffing pattern, and the strategies employed in their roles are presumed to have many practical

benefits to the administrative process and the attainment of the schools' educational goals by the children.

Therefore, such a decision has benign practical effects and far-reaching implications for the administrator and the administrative process in disadvantaged schools. This study proposed to ascertain within some distinguishable limits if, and to what extent, the following aspects of the administrative and educative processes were significantly affected by the roles of the paraprofessionals investigated:

1. Parental involvement in school councils, P.T.As., and other school-community activities that promote education.
2. Parental involvement, acceptance, and reinforcement of the school and its program.
3. Parental financial support for the school.
4. The creation and promotion of good will, cooperation and understandings between the school, parents and community.
5. Orientation of parents, modification of parental attitudes, modification of parental and community

cultural norms that enhance the educative and administrative processes.

6. Development of parental and student positive self-images.

7. Improved student-parent-teacher relationships.

8. Student referral to community health, recreational, educational, and other resources.

9. Improved student school attendance, morale, and attitudes toward school.

10. Providing a more conducive climate for student learning.

11. Building administrator and teacher morale.

12. Enhancing the security and staff needs of the school.

13. Reducing vandalism, trespassing and gang activities on school property.

14. Providing more individual teacher assistance to students.

15. Providing career models for students.



DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was designed to obtain the perceptual assessment and evaluation on teacher aides, school-community representatives, and civilian school security aides in terms of their impact on the poverty area schools and communities in Chicago. Student questionnaires were completed only by students who had been assigned within the previous year, or who were presently assigned to rooms using a teacher aide, school-community representative and civilian school security aide. These requirements insured that only students having some contacts with the paraprofessionals under investigation would answer the questionnaires. Parent questionnaires were answered only by parents who had children presently (or recently) attending schools served by the three paraprofessionals under investigation. Administrator and teacher questionnaires were completed only by those administrators and teachers who had been employed in schools where all three paraprofessionals under investigation worked.

Therefore, the sampling of questionnaires was completed by students, parents, teachers and administrators

who lived in attendance areas or were staff members in schools that had a predominant Black, Appalachian White, or Spanish-surnamed student population. There were 100 respondents from each category of students, parents, teachers, and administrators (principals). Eighteen district superintendents were also respondents.

This study is a perceptual assessment. The statistical instrument used to determine the acceptance or rejection of questionnaire items by respondents is designed with a null hypothesis being accepted or rejected beyond a reasonable doubt at a given level.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The disadvantaged students in Chicago have not been successful in reaching national averages in their struggles for academic attainments. Their educational problems are cyclic, rooted in poverty, impoverished backgrounds, segregation and discrimination, racial isolation, cultural conflicts, and family disorganization. All of these adverse conditions militate against academic attainment by the disadvantaged. Primary physical needs are frequently not adequately met. The problems of adequate food, sleeping

space, esteem, safety, and security needs are frequently neglected. Consequently, the secondary need of desiring to know and understand do not come to fore.

Some basic adsumptions of this study are that the disadvantaged learner, having suffered and presently suffering from diverse forms of cultural and economic deprivation, needs compensatory assistance in his educative process. This compensation is needed in the form of school-community aides to help in the education and reorientation of parents in helping their children, and to serve as career models for disadvantaged children who frequently do not have a working parent.

Also needed are teacher aides in the schools, who can provide needed help to the teachers in tutoring, individualized learning, and taking care of other learning and clerical chores. Security aides are needed to prevent illegal trespassing, vandalism, gang violence, and to maintain general security and safety.

The parents and community must become involved, participate in, be concerned with, support and reinforce the school program. This kind of parent and community activity and attitudes among the disadvantaged requires

a modification and reorientation in values and cultural patterns. Indigenous community-based agents, working with the school and community, are the best mode of accomplishing changes needed in parental cultural patterns and attitudes.

When cultural patterns are modified through the social-psycho dynamic process of indigenous paraprofessionals, parental and peer reinforcement of the school program will become apparent. Then and only then will the disadvantaged student's role of education attainment be carried out. With adequate student progress, the teacher can feel the joy of accomplishment and the administrator, too, will experience satisfaction, for there can be no administrative effectiveness without student and teacher progress.

Havighurst (1957) cites that the primary reason for the schools' continued increscent success in the education of middle class children lies in the reciprocity of goals and values between the school and the middle class home. When the school and the home share a culture orientation, there is mutual reinforcement of the learning efforts. This mutual reinforcement between home and school is a

crucial aspect of learning. Without it, childrens' learning is much less effective. This is a cultural fact that has been documented by study after study.

The middle class parent, in general, is involved with the school which serves as an extension of, and in continuity with, the middle class home. This is the ideal of the school, to serve and be responsive to the needs and interests of the community it serves, and most frequently that community is middle class. Nonetheless, the large cities are culturally heterogeneous, and most of the children attending Chicago's public schools are not middle class. In fact, the schools in the inner city have very few middle class students.

The children from poverty area backgrounds bring to the school behavior patterns that are in conflict with the school culture. These behavior patterns reflect the variations in lifestyles of the poverty and middle class cultures, including child rearing practices.

To illustrate briefly, the middle class child, because of the difference in child rearing practices from those of the poverty area child, is usually more achievement-minded, less inclined to impulsivity and fighting,

has respect rather than fear of authority, has language patterns that are more developed and precise, and is not accustomed to punishment as a means of control. Middle class teachers frequently do not understand, nor know how to cope with the behavior of the disadvantaged. The tendency is to assimilate the disadvantaged student into the middle class culture patterns of behavior. The mode for this assimilation is too often coercive, and results in attacks on the disadvantaged student's culture.

These attacks on the culture of the disadvantaged is tantamount to the teacher proclaiming that father, mother, sister, brother, grandparents, and most of the student's way of life is wrong, and the teacher and school are right.

Stone (1971) comments that to attack a child's culture and value commitments is to create an atmosphere of hostility and ill-rapport that is devastating to learning, and the respect that needs to be shown to children. Such attacks also damage teacher-parent relationships which are vital to the educative process.

It is further suggested by Stone (1971) that there be greater acceptance and appreciation of cultural diver-

sity in the schools, and that the schools abandon their attacks on the disadvantaged culture and discontinue coercive culture change. The schools should concentrate on essential learning and fulfillment of self-realization goals. Further, the schools should: (1) accept the home as a home, (2) try to understand and support its particular functions, (3) not try to change the home or undermine it, and (4) seek a union with the home at the point of common concern--the successful progress of the child in school.

Frost (1971) suggests that in seeking cultural changes in the child, the school should intervene directly in the home through indigenous paraprofessionals who would educate, orient and bring about changed cultural patterns in parents by demonstrating the rewards emanating from the changes. At this point, parents are ready to reinforce and initiate change in the children. The parent is most essential in the education of the child. Schools that have attempted reorientation and retraining of parents have been well rewarded with changed attitudes by many parents and children.

As parents become involved in reeducation and re-orientation programs with indigenous community-school

paraprofessionals, they begin to see the efforts made for their children, and grasp a clear picture of the purpose of education and its values. They come to understand that they must help their children to form proper attitudes, to give attention to their work, and to provide a place and time for study. Parents, then, share the pride that is theirs, as their children experience success, and they share pride in their own accomplishments.

The Child-Parent Centers in Chicago have demonstrated the need for, and the success that comes from, educating, reorienting and modifying parental-cultural patterns. The intensive involvement of parents of other older disadvantaged students in school activities may not be as practicable as involving parents in child-parent centers; however, the school-community aide can bring about similar results through a less intensified program.

Perhaps the crucial significance of this study is that it is active research on a major big city's educational program. It will reinforce and validate a technique that should have some lasting effects on the educative and administrative processes for the disadvantaged.

This study will indicate through the perceptual assessment of students, parents, teachers and administrators, that the technique of using indigenous paraprofessionals in the schools and the communities of disadvantaged children does bring about for them changed cultural patterns, motivation for learning strengthened, new self-concepts of themselves, more significant exposure to career models, and reinforcement for learning by home and peers.

These changes can come about without coercion and attacks on the disadvantaged culture which frequently leads to rejection and hostility for learning and the teacher. Furthermore, validation of the general beneficence accruing to the educative and administrative processes through the use of paraprofessionals, will be coming at a time when funds are available to the City of Chicago for public service jobs. Future commitments to the disadvantaged will be testimony to the success or failure of public education in Chicago and large cities. In this context, public education is now facing its acid test.

Brighton (1972) bemoans the lack of thrust toward the use of paraprofessionals in large cities and other

places having disadvantaged children. Brighton further indicates a Ford Foundation report has shown that 21 to 69 percent of the classroom teacher's time is spent performing activities that do not require professional competence. Olivero (1970) observes that our teachers are better trained today than ever in history; yet, most teachers are only spending 50 percent of their time teaching.

Many other professionals use aides to allow the professionals more time for the performance of professional tasks. Doctors, dentists, college professors and lawyers all use non-professionals to assist them in many tasks. The utilization of paraprofessionals on a limited basis during the past decades have demonstrated their benefits to the educative process, and whatever enhances the education time process automatically enhances the administrative process. For the administrators' reason d'etre is to bring about an effective instruction program--to enhance teaching and learning.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A review of the literature relevant to this study will summarize the present status of paraprofessionals in urban areas, as revealed by the current literature; indicate the need for additional research on paraprofessionals and the education of the disadvantaged; review some of the major problems associated with the education of the disadvantaged which are alleviated by the use of paraprofessionals.

Topics on the Review of the Literature are broken down and delimited as follows:

1. Paraprofessionals--Historical Survey and Present Status
2. Cultural and Economic Deprivation Status--Its Effect on Education
3. Racism, Segregation and Discrimination--The Problem
4. Family Disorganization--An Educational Handicap
5. Language Differences and Deficits--Effects on Educational Attainment

PARAPROFESSIONALS--HISTORICAL REVIEW AND CURRENT STATUS

Edwards (1963) reports that before the adoption of public education in this country, there had been philanthropic efforts designed to extend education en masse to children. The Infant Schools, Sunday Schools, and the Free School Society were early 19th century plans that attempted en masse education of the poor, mainly in the larger cities of New England and the East Coast. One of the features of the designs for en masse education was the use of the Monitorial System for Instruction. The essential features of this system were the use of older, brighter and more advanced students to teach the younger and less competent ones under the supervision of a master teacher. This system reduced the cost of instruction, and was considered to be rather effective and popular at that time. It attracted considerable attention and gained wide support. The monitorial system is probably the first attempt in this country at using paraprofessionals for en masse education.

The system's practice of using older and more competent students to tutor and teach the younger and less competent is analogous in many respects to the present

use of paraprofessionals in our public schools. The establishment of the public school in this country was accomplished through the efforts and persuasions of men who convinced the public that universal education had countless benefits. These commitments prompted the review and study of other notable educational systems in operation in Europe in order to obtain practical and productive modes of operation at home.

Rich (1974) notes that our educators were impressed by the teacher seminars in Prussia, and the normal school of Pestalozzi in Switzerland and France. As the public common school movement grew, the need for teacher training became obvious. Normal schools were the general means of providing teachers, and with the advent of normal schools, teachers began their long road to professionalism; the need for specially trained people to teach was established; and the use of untrained persons to teach was largely discontinued.

The practice of the teacher performing all the diverse tasks and chores related to the classroom continued, with few exceptions, for more than a century. During this time, the teacher's classroom tasks continued

to increase, especially those chores that did not involve direct teaching. With the continuing knowledge explosion over the years, and the inevitable demand for children to learn more and complex concepts and comprehend vastly more information, teachers found that they were overwhelmed with non-teaching duties that prevented them from teaching.

Research surveys were conducted by the National Education Association (NEA Journal, 1967) and others interested in the problem to determine how much time was spent on non-teaching duties such as collecting milk money, helping children dress, doing house chores and paper work. It was discovered that 20 percent to 35 percent of the normal teacher's time was being spent on non-teaching tasks. With the proliferation of students brought on by the "baby boom" following World War II, and the shortage of teachers which accompanied this situation, many parent volunteers in certain areas would help in performing non-teaching duties in classrooms. The popularity and effectiveness of this assistance to the teacher gave impetus to experiments for the use of paraprofessionals to help teachers with non-teaching tasks. Persons helping teachers in the classrooms were generally called teacher aides,

although some other titles have come to fore in recent years, such as education aides and parent aides.

Gudridge (1972) reports that the first major experiment which was generated by the surveys showing a need for classroom teacher assistance was undertaken in Bay City, Michigan, in 1953, with funds granted by the Ford Foundation. This program's primary purpose was to improve the performance and effectiveness of the classroom teacher by freeing the teacher from as many non-teaching duties as possible. It was considered successful, and is still maintained by local funds.

Rutgers, New Jersey and Fairfield, Connecticut also had similar financed projects by the Ford Foundation. These two projects emphasized maintaining instructional quality rather than improving it. The projects at Rutgers and Fairfield met with some opposition from teachers who felt that any additional funds spent for instruction during that time of low teacher salaries should be spent on teacher salaries.

Berkeley, California's school system, in conjunction with the University of California and the Berkeley YMCA implemented a teacher aide program which used college

students as tutors and teaching assistants. Although no formal evaluation was performed, the program was considered effective by the teachers and the students who participated in it.

It is noteworthy that the posture taken by the teacher and administrator organizations on teacher aides has progressed from the emotional to the rational state in a short time on using teacher aides. Teachers were fearful at first that teacher aides would be used in lieu of teachers, and were a threat to their jobs. Many administrators feared the teaching profession would be diluted through the use of teacher aides. Broader use of teacher aides has obviously demonstrated benefits to children that are not accompanied by threats and deterioration to the teaching profession.

Goulet (1967) reported some comprehensive opinion findings from the Committee on Teacher Standards regarding teacher aides from across the country. The use of teacher aides is a most challenging and hopeful advance in modern education. The teacher is a trained professional who must be freed from non-professional tasks so that the main job of being a diagnostician and guider of learning can be

accomplished. The recent upsurge of interest and emphasis on the use of paraprofessionals is prompted by the belief that indigenous paraprofessionals will bring better communication between professionals and pupils of different backgrounds.

Rittenhouse (1972) notes there is an urgent need for heightened awareness of the special learning needs of the disadvantaged. The teachers should play a major role in determining the tasks that the paraprofessionals should perform in the classrooms. There should be a system of inservice training and regular seminars to support the teacher aides in the performance of their regular duties. A continuing program of university training to allow for a career ladder, and leading to a degree, should also be available for those who are ambitious.

The standards of ethics on confidential information which is applicable to teachers should apply to teacher aides. There should be some basic standards for eligibility and qualifications to be a teacher aide, and teacher aides should be either licensed or certified. The teacher and teacher aide should act as a team, with the teacher as the team leader. Being a teacher aide may

well become a part of preparing to become a teacher one day.

Of 428 school districts in New York State, 93 percent of them considered their relationships with teacher aides satisfactory. Seyforth and Canady (1970) summarized principal and teacher opinions in Tennessee, and concluded that technology in education and the improvement of teacher performance are the basic reasons for the use of teacher aides. Principals want teacher aide duties to be limited to working with materials and doing paper work. Teachers feel teacher aides can assist them in limited aspects of instruction.

August Mauser (Contemporary Education, 42:139-141, December, 1971) asserts that the issue is no longer whether large cities will use teacher aides and other paraprofessionals, but how they will be used. Teacher aides can be best utilized for individualized instruction, flexibility, management of children, and closer relationships with the community. New York City has 15,000 paraprofessionals now in use. Twenty-five percent of all teachers in the United States have at least the part-time use of a paraprofessional, such as teacher aides. There is

considerable opinion currently that the teacher aide position should be included in the training or internship for the teachers.

A survey by the National Education Association in 1970 (NEA Bulletin, 1970) showed that teacher aides were utilized in a room with one teacher with 3.7 percent total elementary teachers and 2.1 percent of the total high school teachers in the country. Teacher aides were being shared by 30 percent of the elementary school teachers, and 14.7 percent of the high school teachers. The size of the school system, and whether it is urban or rural, had no effect on the use of teacher aides. The Western Region had more teacher aides than any other region. The major uses of teacher aides were: 46 percent had lunch room duties; 40 percent graded papers; and 10 percent did clerical work.

Tanner and Tanner (1969) point out the lack of standards or basic requirements on a regional, or even state, basis for selecting teacher aides. Forty percent of all teacher aide programs began in the 1966 school year. Most cities financed their teacher aide programs with ESEA

funds in poverty level neighborhoods. The theoretical basis for most teacher aides' tasks was vague.

There is confusion in teacher aide titles. Teacher aides are called paraprofessionals, subprofessionals, nonprofessionals, and school aides. The qualifications for teacher aides range from an 8th grade graduate in one-third of the states, to 60 college hours in Iowa. Wyoming has the strictist law regarding teacher aides' duties. Under no circumstances is a teacher aide allowed to assume any type of instructional duties.

Lefkowitz (Kaplan, April, 1973) admonishes teachers for their acceptance and enthusiasm for using teacher aides. The continued proliferation in the use of teacher aides is seen as a conspiracy between school boards and administrators to cut costs and get cheaper education. The use of teacher aides is viewed as diminishing the status of teachers as professionals. Teacher organizations are accused of being short-sighted in not advising against the use of teacher aides.

Michael (Kaplan, April, 1973) lauds the use of teacher aides to both teachers and students. It is a humanizing effort aimed at the school. Lefkowitz asserts

that the purpose of using teacher aides is to provide jobs for ghetto residents. This, too, is a tremendous aid and motivation to slum youth to continue in school. One of the problems with the disadvantaged young is that too few parents are able to provide occupation models.

Rittenhouse (1970) found that three basic types of aides are employed in public education. The instructional aide, administrative and clerical aide, and the community and social service aide. The general duties of the instructional aide are:

1. Preparing flashcards, charts and other instructional materials.
2. Keeping attendance, operating audiovisual equipment.
3. Reporting to the teacher requests for help which comes from students.
4. Reading aloud and listening to children reading.
5. Tutoring individual or small groups of children.
6. Scoring tests.

7. Monitoring student activity in the corridors and in study halls.

8. Making arrangements for field trips.

Administrative and clerical aides perform their duties in school offices, playgrounds, and lunchrooms.

The following are included:

1. Typing
2. Answering telephones
3. Operating duplicating machines
4. Record and bookkeeping
5. Monitoring playgrounds and lunchrooms
6. Overseeing and storing supplies.

Community and social service aides serve as liaison persons between the home, school and other community agencies. Their roles facilitate the utilization of community services. Following are illustrations of a community and social service aide's functions:

1. Serves as liaison person between home and school in attendance problems
2. Serves as a trouble-shooter in identifying students' work and study problems

3. Creates and reinforces positive attitudes of both parents and students toward school

4. Makes home visits and reports problems which are related to school problems to teachers

5. Makes telephone calls to parents on a regular basis

6. Serves as a model for parents and children

7. Follows through on teacher referrals of behavior, disciplinary, or social problems to counselors or parents

8. Works with individual children on their particular problems with understanding and sympathy.

The community and social service aide, which is called a community relations representative in the Chicago public schools, performs crucial human relations, communication and cultural gap-filling tasks:

1. Helps parents understand school rules

2. Refers parents to various social agencies in connection with diverse problems

3. Interprets the needs, insecurities, and insufficiencies of parents and children to school staff members.

4. Visits children's homes, confers with parents in the activities that support the school.

Stone (1971) comments that contact between the school and home or community may be satisfactory in middle class or suburban or other high economic level areas because parents make their wants and problems known. In disadvantaged areas, there may be open hostility. Parents are often uneducated, may have language usage problems, and feel unable to communicate with school personnel. They may not be insensitive to the fact that their children are not getting an adequate education, however; and the results are frustration and anger.

Middle class teachers and administrators are not infrequently insensitive to disadvantaged parents, and are unable to communicate to them in language they understand. Indigenous community aides understand parental problems because of some sharing of a common background which is enormously useful in opening lines of communication in both directions. The learning atmosphere is thereby improved for children, and the teacher's job is more rewarding.

The first paid paraprofessionals in the Chicago public schools in recent times began in 1964 as teacher aides in the Head Start program which required a teacher aide and a volunteer in each teacher's room. It was not difficult to get a paid teacher aide, but volunteers were sometimes not easily recruited. In 1965, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) was passed, and the next year, some 400 teacher aides were hired in Title I programs to provide special assistance and services to Title I children only. These Title I guidelines were the same as the teacher aide duties listed earlier in the Rittenhouse survey.

Also hired during this time were 336 school-community representatives who were participants in a school-community identification project. Twelve staff assistants were employed to provide inservice training, orientation, and program coordination for these school-community representatives. The overall program was to be coordinated by a central administrator.

The success of federal funded teacher aide programs in freeing teachers from many non-teaching classroom chores, and in the assistance brought to administrators,

popularized the use of teacher aides. In 1967, the Chicago Teachers Union included in its contract with the Board of Education provisions for 1200 local funded teacher aide positions. The primary function of the local funded teacher aides was to give a duty-free preparation period to teachers. A teacher aide committee was appointed by the General Superintendent of Schools to develop a set of guidelines for the selection, hiring, functioning, and overall utilization of teacher aides and the coordination of the teacher aide program. The committee guidelines were similar to those followed by Title I programs.

The use of teacher aides from local funds was spread throughout the system and not limited to disadvantaged areas. Teacher aides were welcomed with enthusiasm and cooperation by administrators and teachers. The impact of teacher aides and other paraprofessionals from 1967 to 1971 perhaps can be measured by the results of the survey on how to use Emergency Employment Act funds in 1971.

The overwhelming consensus on the use of EEA funds by teachers and administrators were more teacher aides, security aides and school-community representatives.

Consequently, 450 additional teacher aides, civilian security aides, and school-community representatives were employed from EEA funds in 1971 and 1972. Two hundred of these 450 paraprofessionals were hired from the relief rolls in a special program for relief recipients. The EEA program continued until June, 1974, and again, another paraprofessional program was evaluated as highly popular.

To summarize the status of paraprofessional programs in Chicago during the past ten years, the following comments are germane:

1. Paraprofessionals were first initiated with federal funds from the Economic Opportunity Act and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.
2. Teacher aides were the first category and remains the largest category of positions.
3. The positions of school-community representatives and civilian security aides have been added to the teacher aide category, and these positions are also well accepted.
4. The acceptance and approval of the paraprofessional programs in the Chicago public schools perhaps can be assessed by the request from teachers and adminis-

trators to use funds from the Emergency Employment Act of 1971, and the Comprehensive Employment Training Act of 1974 for additional paraprofessionals.

5. This high level approval in Chicago is reflected in all the large cities. Chicago now has approximately 2,000 paraprofessionals.

6. The National School Public Relations Association's special report on paraprofessionals for 1972 indicates that there are approximately 300,000 working in and around public schools, and that by 1977, this number could swell to over a million.

7. Paraprofessionals have had such a positive impact on the operation of the schools, and are so highly approved by administrators and teachers, that both of the large teacher organizations are actively courting paraprofessionals and welcoming them into the teacher unions as units of the bargaining compound. The paraprofessional movement appears to be destined to grow to become an important part of educational personnel!

CULTURAL AND ECONOMIC DEPRIVATION STATUS--
ITS EFFECT ON EDUCATION

Poverty and the School

Frost (1971) suggests that unless one has been faced with the dreary cycle of scratching just enough out of the environment to stay alive, he doesn't know the impact of poverty. Those who suffer from poverty live in a cognitive system, quite dissimilar from that of the middle class. Their entire way of thinking has been influenced by deprivation and want. They are preoccupied with survival needs, and until there is a minimum satisfaction of the primary survival needs--which poverty makes difficult--there is limited interest in learning school subjects.

This concept parallels Maslow's theory on the hierarchy of needs (Beehler, 1971, p. 320). Maslow contends in his highly accepted theory that the "being need" or the desire for knowing and understanding comes to fore only when the lower physiological, security and safety, love and belongingness, and esteem needs have been met. This concept is particularly helpful, and has massive implications in planning for the education of the disadvantaged. In Chicago, we are talking about more than half

of the student population. Disadvantaged children who come from impoverished, deprived backgrounds, in general, do not do well in school, have alarming dropout rates, and their unemployment rate is a grave city and national problem.

Maslow's theory of need gratification helps to explain the adage of the courtship and intimate relationship between poverty and ignorance--they walk hand-in-hand. Perhaps it also explains why the goals and aspirations of poor children are separate from the prosperous mainstream.

The war on poverty is an imperative war because poverty has a very adverse affect on education, as well as life itself. Dr. Arthur Bushnel, New York City's Health Commissioner, cites poverty as the third largest killer of mankind. The disparity in death rates of the poor and the higher income family indicate the correlation between poverty and a quicker death. The poor have poor diets, lack medical diagnosis and treatment. The poor have neglected tumors and rashes, poor housing, ignorance of health laws, and lack of habits conducive to health and mental health.

Former President Lyndon B. Johnson, commenting at a rally on the war on poverty, proclaimed that the handicapping and debilitating consequence of poverty needs no documentation. The culture of poverty, with its squalor, hunger and deprivation, imposes a mounting sense of despair and hopelessness which drains the initiative and ambitions of its victims. There are some differences in each person's response to adversity, but there are fewer triumphs than defeat at the hands of poverty. The pressure of living in poverty brings out the weakness in most personalities.

Frost (1971) cites a study by Francis Palmer which is one of the most elaborate and definitive studies ever conducted on the poor as related to learning. Palmer's study shows that once some of the severe restrictions of poverty are removed, ghetto and slum children perform (learn) on an equal and competitive basis with their advantaged peers. But, as long as slum children are part of, and suffer from, the paralyzing depression and despair which economic deprivation brings, and are limited by the impoverished background of the culture of poverty, they will focus on the daily task of survival and eliminate

the motivation and consideration for task calling for delayed gratification.

A story which illustrates the survival now philosophy of the poor and their rejection of delayed gratification is told about a poorly educated welfare mother who was the head of her family of seven children, and lived in a slum tenement on Chicago's West Side. The story goes that this mother bought a television set for her family on credit, and for a few days after receiving her monthly welfare check, she would purchase extra goodies for herself and the children and watch television rather late into the night. This practice played havoc with her monthly budget, and for several days, before the arrival of the next month's check, she and the children were without money for food and other living expenses. When this mother requested an increase in her living allowance, the caseworker lectured her on how to manage her money adequately. He also admonished her for buying a television set, and having extra goodies as she and the children watched it. The caseworker suggested ways that this mother could stretch her money from month-to-month, and possibly have some left over. He worked out a budget

as a part of his hypothesis, and explained it to this mother. The mother, in a frustrating, hostile tone, rejected the hypothesis and the philosophy of the caseworker, and she ended their conference by making the following observation about herself and her children:

I can see you have no idea of what us is about. I like to see yo'all start from zero the way we do, and see how many big numbers you can become. I means if you got nothing when you are born, and you know you can't get nothing no matter how hard you try--well then you dies with nothing. No one say that 'rithmetic is wrong.

Some may marvel at the Black folksy wisdom of song, story and spiritual. Those who pay the daily price of its acquisition take it for granted. Life for them is an unending struggle for survival, and each day's shakey victory in that struggle is but a prelude to the hardships to be faced tomorrow.

Interviews with teachers and principals indicate that many of Chicago's disadvantaged students come to school hungry, without adequate sleep, and ill-clothed. Inadequate food, housing, and clothing are common to them. Primary needs are not adequately gratified for these students, and their motivation for learning and understanding are at a low level in the face of improperly ful-

filled physical needs. Added to this problem is the fact that Chicago is a city, also, of affluence.

Jackson Toby of Rutgers University conducted a study for the National Crime Commission which showed that because America is an affluent nation, there is a revolution of rising expectations which is cause and effect of this affluence. The poor are resentful and envious in the midst of plenty, and it is not poverty per se that generates crime, violence and vandalism, but the resentment and envy of the conspicuous affluence that surrounds the poor.

Conant (1961) has an additional perspective on the inner city disadvantaged. He contrasts the city's White immigrant poor of the 19th century and early 20th century with the present minority poor. It is noted that the immigrant had optimism, hope and mobility. Many of his kind were constantly moving out of the disadvantaged areas as they accumulated and saved from their labor. The tragedy of the minority and Black slum dweller today is that most are without conviction or hope. They have had the jobs they can perform partly eliminated by automation. Many are unemployed, or they are the working

poor. Also, discrimination in housing prevents many others from moving out. The combination of economic distress and discrimination has bound most of the disadvantaged to the ghetto for life.

In recent years, several studies on poverty's effect on human development have produced some perturbing information. Dr. Benjamin Bloom, of the University of Chicago, and Dr. J. Hunt, of the University of Illinois (1964) have engaged in studies which show that the difference between a favorable and impoverished environment may affect the I.Q. as much as 2.5 points for each of the first four years of life. The cumulative effects of an extreme poor environment may affect the I.Q. downward twenty points during the first 17 years of life. The correlations in these studies between I.Q. and nurture indicate strongly that the I.Q. is not fixed, but is contingent upon nurture and development.

Closely related to these studies are other studies on malnutrition and births by adolescent mothers. Dr. E. O. Ellis, of the American Medical Association, discusses in Ebony (August, 1974) the effects of malnutrition on brain cell development. Seventy-five to 85 percent of

all mentally defective children are born in poverty. Many of these mentally retarded children are born to young mothers who suffer malnutrition during the prenatal stages. Poverty, asserts Dr. Ellis, is a most handicapping and disabling influence.

Low income families are likely to be large, and the majority of Black families suffer from poverty, or near poverty. Among Blacks, there are many young mothers giving birth to underweight babies. The combination of adolescent pregnancy and malnutrition in the mother, which is combined with a further poverty-laden home environment, reacts to produce an infant mortality rate in Blacks three times the White rate, and a maternal mortality rate four times the White rate.

These conditions also account for the unusually large number of retarded Black children in relation to the number of Whites. Essentially, what is being said here is that poverty is responsible for a host of social and health ills which also affect the education of all the disadvantaged whose common denominator is poverty.

It is the disadvantaged poor parents who often have the large families, and with Blacks, two-thirds of

these families are headed by women. So often these are the families that are so burdened with the tasks of survival that they are not prone to assist their children in the learning tasks, nor take an interest in the school.

The school-community representative can assist the poor by providing them with assistance in obtaining all of the public agency services for their children, such as health clinics, social work services, free food services at school for children, and free clothing that some civic organizations provide. The teacher aide and the security aide, who are indigenous to the community, provide occupation models to the many children who come from homes where no one works.

These paraprofessionals can help parents and children develop the attitude that the school is helping them to a better life, and that their need to cooperate in their own behalf is critical.

Culture and the School

According to John Dewey (1938), "Education is life, and the school is only one aspect of the institution of education." Dewey adds that in its widest sense, educa-

tion may be thought of as the complete socializing process through which a person learns his way of life. It is a continuing process from birth to death. The school refers to a restricted aspect of education, as Herkovitz (1956) comments, it "limits its use to those processes of teaching and learning carried on at a specific time in particular places outside the home, for definite periods, by persons especially trained or prepared for the task."

Herkovitz' definition is factual as far as it goes, however, it is incomplete because it does not include the range of content which the school utilizes. The school is a unique institution in our society with an incomplete open-ended design. It has limitations which our society is aware of, but will not always admit to. These limitations are determined by the parameters of its modus operandi.

The 59th Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education (1959) suggests that the school is created by a society in some image of the society for the purpose of reproducing in the learner the knowledge, attitudes, values, and techniques (social, etc.) that have relevancy and/or currency. The educational arrangements

of a people are determined, in a large measure, by the social-cultural order of which they are a part.

The formal education which the school designs is for meeting the needs of the learner. But, the learner's needs are largely determined by the social-cultural order in which he lives, with some room for negotiation between the school and society. Since the school is derived from the main cultural stream of a society, it is a social institution that is culturally encapsulated--it is always bound and basically conditioned by the constraining cultural forces. Because the school is derived from, and conditioned by, a particular culture to carry the discussion forward from this point, some distinctions must be made clear relative to culture and learning.

Kelly (1952) makes some supreme observations relative to the nature of man and knowing that relate to, and are very germane to, education and schooling:

1. Through perception, man has cognition.

Actual perception comes through the organism itself, and not from objects of externality. What is real is not an external object or abstraction, but the interpretation

made by the individual of them, and the individual acts upon these interpretations.

2. When one's interpretation of externality agrees with reality (the way most others in his group interpret reality), he will be successful and receive social approval; when the opposite is true, he is a failure.

3. Man accumulates experiences because he is able to remember and he can plan and direct his future actions based on the assumptions and value judgments made from past experiences.

4. Man always perceives in light of his accumulated experiences up to the moment. Then past perceptions become experiences. So, experiences are essential to perception which become new experiences.

5. Man is therefore built by his experiences--where he has been and what he has done. The experiences that are left over after experiences take place (residue), we call knowledge. We refer to the perception experience process as learning, or the learning process. Therefore, knowledge is the result of learning.

6. We must assume that all living tissue is purposive. Purpose is the driving force which gives

expression for, or points direction to, the expenditure of energy of which we consist. Purpose is below the consciousness level in lower animals. In man it is mostly, but not always below consciousness; it is thought to have some cultural determinants.

7. Knowledge then is what we know--it is a product of the perception experience (learning) process. This process is unique to every individual. Therefore, if the process is unique, then knowledge is unique.

8. Accordingly, no two people can know exactly the same thing; nor can an item of knowledge affect them in the same way. Knowledge is subjective in nature, and subject to continuous modification in an ever-changing world. Knowledge is uniquely held and uniquely used; it is built into man's structure.

9. The phenomena of perception is the organism's link to externality (the environment) and therefore, the most fundamental factor in human life. It is based on experience and purpose. It follows then that man cannot receive through perception that which he does not have the experience and purpose to receive.

10. There appears to be at least four things involved in the perception process. Two come before the perception process. Two come before perception-experience and purpose. The other two follow immediately and automatically--assumption and valuation.

11. When we perceive anything, we immediately make assumptions and valuation about the perception. However, once the experience residue becomes knowledge, it induces attitudes, habits and valuation that controls future experience. Attitudes and habits are difficult to modify, but none can resist certain perceptive experiences. This is why we call learning growth; it is the perception experience process that continues throughout life.

Kelly's perception experience exposition incorporates sound psychological and physiological principles of learning. The middle class children are successful learners in middle class schools, and generally learn at an acceptable rate because all of the schools' norms are based on their performances. The cultural content of the middle class child contains the rewards for his status and role as a student.

Reinforcement and social approval is present in the middle class social order, so the school is an outer extension of the home experience with mutual reinforcements operating between the school and home. The opposite is frequently true for the disadvantaged child. His language and other background experiences do not generally provide him with the tools, experience, nor purpose (motivation) for successful learning at an acceptable or equal rate with the middle class students. Consequently, his lack of success is devastating to his ego, shattering to his self-confidence, and destructive to his motivation. Continued failure means that the disadvantaged child will begin to identify with failure and suffer the frustrations and damage to self-worth that accompany it.

Frost (1971) refers to the limitations of experiences as stimulation deprivation. The point of origin of stimulation deprivation, within a context related to the school, is when the child ceases to have experiences that will eventually allow him to function in American middle class life. When a disadvantaged child fails to receive appropriate learnings and acquire a repertory of relevant middle class experiences, his probability for success in

the usual school which functions within a middle class context is slight. Early failure serves to initiate in this child a system of defenses designed to protect his own integrity and self-concept. These behavioral defenses result in future failures in school which, in turn, strengthen and broaden defense patterns which lead to rejection of the opportunities in the school.

This cycle of early failure, defense, later failure, and rejection is compounded by an educational system which anticipates that the disadvantaged child will not succeed.

Stone (1970) finds that many educators (administrators and teachers) seem to be acquainted only with the world within the parameters of their own middle class contacts. They have superficial or little involvement in the world of their poor Black, Spanish-speaking, or poor White students. It is naive to assume that these students will spend a majority of their life in a White middle class setting. Consequently, to attempt to destroy all of their sub-culture and replace it entirely with middle class culture is baneful to the students' rapport with his socio-cultural milieu.

Middle class teachers should be reminded that they, in fact, may be considered irrelevant in a disadvantaged classroom. As such, albeit they are obligated to be socializing agents of the middle class culture; they should not attack the student's culture, lest they risk his inferring that family and home are being attacked. Such a situation could easily lead to hostility and conflicts that would hamper the job of helping the student in his intellectual growth.

Linton (1945) observes that culture is concerned with the content and meaning of a particular way of life of a people. The integration between the individual, the society, and the culture is so close and intertwined, and the interaction so continuous, that they are as dependent on each other as the legs of a three-legged stool. The culture as a whole provides an indispensable guide to its members in all the affairs of life. It would be impossible for society or the individual to function without it. Cultural patterns, with its background of social approval and social pressure, provides enormous predictability to the behavior of the culture members. This predictability is not absolute, but its probability is high.

The participation of an individual in the culture of a society is determined by that individual's position or status in the society, and the training he or she has received in anticipation of occupying that status. The sum total of the cultural patterns which the individual performs, including attitudes, values and behaviors, are known as the role ascribed by society in association with the status. Culture, then, is concerned with values which are expressed in terms of behavior, and culture is shared among a particular people. It is learned, not inherited; it is a total way of life.

Since culture refers to a total way of life, its core is built around meeting life's basic needs. It is also an adaptation and coping device in its functions. Consequently, culture is a paramount determinant to behavior and learning. Our society is a stratified society of differentiated social classes. These social classes have a core of culture patterns that are common and overlapping to them all.

There are also many differentiated and unique cultural patterns associated with each social class. This designates our society as multi-cultural or hetero-

cultural. The dominant or middle culture in our society is middle class culture.

The schools cannot deliver intellectual development appropriately to most disadvantaged children without intervening into cultural modification of parents. To expect the schools to accomplish their tasks without cultural modification is futile. Most attempts to do so fail, because success would require controverting the principles of psycho-cultural dynamics.

To date, Frost (1971) reports that the most successful attempts by the schools to provide for the disadvantaged have been accomplished with the use of paraprofessionals assisting in the orientation, or bringing about cultural changes, in parents.

THE PROBLEM OF RACISM, SEGREGATION, AND DISCRIMINATION ON BIG CITY SCHOOLS

Kovel (1970) observes that the invidious racial crisis that has existed in America for 350 years compels the realization that racism in this country is no aberration, no delusion of an ignorant and bigoted minority, but is a set of beliefs and social practices whose structure

is part of our social heritage that arises from the deepest level of our lives. Racism is indivisible and interwoven into our lives as a part of the assumptions we make about ourselves, others, and our fundamental social activities. Racism is dissimulated into our culture in the forms of symbolic irrational distortions, and grotesque forbidden fantasies that have escaped the censors of our conscience in the furtive journey from the unconscious domain of our primitive greed, savage lust and criminal aggression.

American racism, perhaps, has a common source of unconscience unity with its highest ideals. Ideals that may not have been needed, had a part of us not plunged so low in pursuit of our desires. Racism is nourished by our passions, survives by sustained acts of deception, and is the systematic exclusion of another from humanity based upon pseudo-scientific rationalizations that ascribe inordinate importance to skin color and ethnic origin. It is one's own participation in a historical process of human degradation. It is a form of social hate and social violence whose offshoots are discrimination and segregation.

Segregation and discrimination exist in our society and is mirrored in our schools on the basis of race, religion, and ethnicity. The discrimination and segregation which exist on the basis of religion and ethnicity are minor indeed, when compared to those based on race or skin color. All non-Whites suffer some discrimination, segregation and exclusions in our society. Orientals, American Indians, Mexicans, Puerto Ricans and others considered non-White are so affected. None of the discriminations, segregations and exclusions suffered by other non-White groups approach in strength, intensity or pervasiveness that which Blacks suffer.

One cannot comprehend the nature of present Black discrimination and segregation without understanding the origin of Blacks in America. Edwards (1963) points out that Blacks provided two and one-half centuries of free labor in the slave regions of this country, and approximately 90 years of this labor was after our emancipation from England. The South, before the Civil War, produced no great financial and manufacturing institutions of its own. It relied on the North to market its agricultural products and supply it with manufactured goods. And in

the process, much of the wealth on southern plantations was channeled into northern pockets in the form of profits, tariffs, freight charges, commissions, and interest. Consequently, there was never any massive abolitionist movement against slavery in this country, because the North shared the profits from slavery. Except for a small contingent of religious abolitionists, the majority of northerners shared, or at least tolerated, the southern view of the Negro. Seldom in the history of America has moral and religious sentiment failed to accommodate to strong overriding economic interest. This is the history of the Protestant establishment, popular myths, notwithstanding.

The agrarian South and West had been able to, most of the time, dominate the policy of the National government until 1860. President Lincoln and the Republicans of 1860 promised the western farmers free homesteading, and the East high tariffs. This scheme of the industrialists and bankers of the East won the control of the national government in 1860. President Lincoln publicly proclaimed that he did not believe in the equality

of Blacks, and even proposed a constitution amendment to protect slavery in states where it existed.

It was the extension of slavery into the newly expanded western and northern territories that was opposed by Lincoln and the North. This would have meant the continued domination of the national government by the southern slave states' interests. The Civil War was fought for the control over the national government, and the inherent power that went with it.

Kovel (1970) observes that the concept of property in America is all-powerful, and a good deal of what is destructive of human potentiality in our culture is derived from our preference of poverty rights over human rights. To protect it from feelings of guilt, the South created pseudoscientific theories of inferiority of Blacks that provided fragile, but adequate rationalizations for them to maintain the institution of slavery as compatible with their religion.

Osofsky (1967) cites a classic example of southern distortion and appeal to illegitimate authority:

A knowledge of the great primary truths, that the Negro is a slave by nature and can never be happy, industrious, moral or religious, in any other condition than the one he was intended to fill, is of

great importance to the theologian, the statesman, and to all those who at heart are seeking to promote his future welfare.

The end of the Civil War did not change the South's views about slavery and the inferiority of Negroes. After the southern states reformed their governments, and the northern occupation ended, laws were immediately enacted that replaced slavery with a color caste complex or system that was in reality not very different from slavery in sentiment and economic operation. Nonetheless, the Blacks were freed from bondage and had a history of hard work that was known to the North. The North's indifference and disdain for the freed slaves was demonstrated by its rejection of Blacks as laborers and homesteaders in the expanded territories. Had this attitude not persisted, Blacks could have performed the same roles along with millions of immigrants from Europe.

Osofsky (1967) refers to the Civil War as an unfulfilled revolution because no social revolution followed. Even the most advanced social reformers and ardent supporters of Black freedom failed to realize the debilitating, dehumanizing effects that some 250 years of bondage had wrought. The States, where most of the Blacks

had been freed, were devastated from the war, and most Blacks (having no education, no land and no means of support) began to work as sharecroppers under a system of Black codes and peonage that rivaled, and sometimes extended, the misery of slavery. The Klu Klux Klan and other anti-Black groups enforced these codes by intimidation, lynchings and other barbarisms. Blacks were permitted to attend schools in a separate, but equal, school system that was far more separate than equal.

The beginning of the 20th century saw more industrial expansion, and a need for labor. Blacks who had been accustomed to the rigorous field work began to come northward to work in mills, mines, and railroads. There was not enough immigrant labor from Europe, and the industrialists recruited Blacks to fill the void. Before and after World War I, Black migration to northern cities, including Chicago, increased sharply. This rapid increase in the Black population in Chicago resulted in an expansion of the Black ghettos into heretofore White residential areas. The tensions that followed, and the political consequences of the 1919 City election combined to set the

stages for the 1919 race riot in Chicago that saw 38 persons killed and 537 injured.

There were immense population increases in Chicago among Blacks before and after World War II due to the need for manpower in an expanded war economy. The automation of the farms since 1950 had fostered the sharpest of all increases in Black and Spanish-speaking populations.

Today, the public school system is 72 percent non-White, and the total city population approximately 45 to 50 percent non-White. Housing patterns of racial segregation continue to be the normative system of residency. Consequently, 86 percent of Black children attend schools that are 90 to 100 percent Black. Mexican and Puerto Rican children, who form the bulk of the Spanish-speaking children, are also concentrated in schools that reflect the concentration of their residency.

The Supreme Court has not issued any edict on the detrimental effects of segregated housing. Nevertheless, the Kerner Report (1968) suggests that any system of residency that does not practice or reinforce middle class cultural patterns does not prepare children for middle class oriented schools.

The effects of segregated schools on colored children has been well documented by many psychological studies, and was part of the plaintiff's arguments before Chief Justice Earl Warren who spoke for the Supreme Court in 1954. Warren, speaking for the members of the Supreme Court, stated:

Segregation of White and colored children in public schools has a detrimental effect upon colored children. The impact is greater when it has the sanction of law, for the policy of separating the races is usually interpreted as denoting the inferiority of the Negro group. A sense of inferiority affects the motivation of a child to learn. Segregation, with sanction of the law, therefore, has a tendency to retard the educational and mental development of Negro children and to deprive them of some of the benefits they would receive in a racially integrated school system. We conclude that in the field of public education, the doctrine of separate but equal has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. . . . Such segregation is a denial of the equal protection of the laws.

Inkenberry (1974) notes that for the last two decades the progress toward integration has been slow and agonizing. Many school districts have ignored the court decision, and violence has marked the course of many other districts. Yet, integration has moved steadily and continues to make slow, but sure, progress--despite segregated housing patterns. Though de jure segregation is

ended, de facto segregation has remained too widespread with the same detrimental effects on colored children.

Various means have been used to assess the ill effects of segregation and discrimination on Black children. Defective ego development is one manifestation of the malevolent effect. Pasow (1963) cites comments of David and Pearl Ausubel which indicated that many Negro children live in a predominantly lower class subculture that is further characterized by a female headed family structure by specially circumscribed opportunities for acquiring status, by varying degrees of segregation from the dominant White majority, and above all, by a fixed and apparently immutable denigration of their social value, standing, and dignity as human beings because of their skin color. Hence, it would be remarkable, indeed, if these factors did not result in significant developmental differences in self-esteem, in aspirations for achievement, in personality adjustment, and in character structure.

The Supreme Court decision of 1954 was based primarily on considerations of ego development. In the past, most Negroes, more or less, accepted their devalued social status and second-class citizenship, aspired to low-level

occupational roles requiring little education or training, found work in unskilled and menial occupations, and lived within their segregated subculture shunning contact and competition with Whites.

This type of adjustment is less and less possible today in Chicago. The stock yards have moved out, the foundries and mills have become automated, and there is a very diminished need for unskilled labor. Anyone failing to finish high school and acquire some technical training is at a considerable disadvantage in today's job market.

Black youth grow up in a disadvantaged subculture that neither fosters aspirations for such education and training, nor provides the moral and material support necessary for their realization. Black youth are very dissatisfied with their segregated caste status and second class citizenship. At the same time, their disadvantaged culture of poverty and deprivation has not provided them with the discipline, character structure, and repertoire of educational and vocation skills that on the whole enable them to compete with Whites adequately in the wider culture. Furthermore, even when they are able to compete,

discrimination and segregation frequently restrict them in the job market.

The U. S. Chamber of Commerce Report (1972) shows that vocational and educational training does not bring equal remuneration for Blacks as for Whites. The average Black high school graduate has a yearly income equal to the average White eighth grade graduate and dropout. The average Black college graduate has an income equivalent to the White high school graduate. The financial editor of the Daily News (Chicago: February, 1972) came out with an article which calculated that it costs \$1,650 yearly to be Black in America. This amount represented the difference in Black and White family income ascribed to race. There was at that time a total difference of \$3,350 in Black and White family income; however, \$1,700 was ascribed to difference in educational and vocational skills. But \$1,650 was calculated as being strictly a color factor.

Kardiner (1951) concludes that the dominant source of conflict in the White personality is based on class status; but in the case of the Negro, it is caste status that presents the dominant source of conflict. The adap-

tation is qualified more by his skin color. Negro adaptation is oriented toward the discrimination he suffers and the consequences of this discrimination for self-referential aspects of his social orientation.

Discrimination and segregation causes the Negro self-esteem sufferings because of the constant unpleasant images received on the basis of caste and color. The impact of social discrimination is ever present, and serves as an unrelieved irritant.

In order to maintain protective internal balance, the Negro must initiate restitutive maneuvers to keep functioning--all quite automatic and unconscious. In addition to the internal balance, Negroes must continue a social facade and some kind of adaptation to the offending stimuli in order to preserve social effectiveness. This requires some preoccupation, notwithstanding all of these adaptational practices taking place at a low level of awareness.

Grambs (1965) highlights the central significant of self-concept as a determinant to behavior and to personality. The way a person views himself is the way he will behave. If one views himself as successful, someone whom

others like, attractive--then his behavior will reflect these views. On the other hand, if one views himself as inadequate, someone whom others don't like, unattractive--then his behavior will reflect this valuation of himself. The factual truth of the statements are irrelevant; it is the perception that is important. The source of one's self-image is not internal; it is learned. The way a mother responds to a newborn baby with delight, or weary acceptance, will be apparent in the behavior of the baby before very long. A child whose parents trust and love him will be a loving and trustful individual.

Different cultures produce different basic personality types. A child's concept of himself is influenced by the context of his social order. The way the significant adults with whom he comes in contact relate to him influences the image he forms of himself. The Black child's ego structure and self-concept reflects, to a great extent, the legal, class, economic and social status that he enjoys, endures or suffers in our culture.

In many ways the disadvantaged Black child gets the message from the dominant culture that White is right, powerful, influential, good and controlling; and that

Black is inferior and bad. The inferior caste, prejudice, segregation and discrimination, and not finding himself respected and with dignity in the dominant society confuses many Black disadvantaged children. They would like to think well of themselves, but often tend to evaluate themselves according to standards set by the dominant cultural group. These mixed feelings often lead to self-hatred and rejection of their own group, hostility toward other groups, and a generalized pattern of personality difficulties.

Segregation means that the personal worth, of either a White or Black person, is measured solely by group membership, regardless of individual merit. Such a measure is realistically false and of necessity distorts the developing self-image of each other. Under these psychological circumstances the Black child is, for example, frequently burdened with inescapable inferiority feelings, a fixed ceiling to his aspiration level which can constrict the development of his potentialities, and a sense of humiliation and resentment which can entail patterns of hatred against himself and his own group--as well as against the dominant White group.

The disadvantaged Black child sees himself as an object of derision and disrespect, and too often his despair and hopelessness lead him to a distressful and wretched state of alienation which is disintegrating to himself and to his society.

Changing Education (Summer, 1974) analyzes the case of alienated youth. Alienation, which is a general term for a feeling of not belonging, rootlessness, estrangement and hopelessness, is often associated with school failure. Children come to alienation in a variety of ways, but the majority are poor children who, for diverse reasons, have not been able to form a strong identity or unifying ties to school, neighborhood or church. Minority groups who are rejected because of color, religion or language, are very susceptible to alienation. Alienation is a serious educational and societal problem in Chicago and other large cities. Many minority students find their language (slang or foreign), culture, religion, race, or whole self ignored, derided or attacked from outside their group. Opportunities for social mobility, and even survival, are restricted, and the rejected develop hidden apathy toward the limiting characteristics and open

hostility toward the outside society. They become defensively loyal to characteristics and behaviors which are offensive to the outside society, but these characteristics frequently serve as rallying points for solidarity of the group.

The alienated usually follow two choices of behavior left open to them--retreat and counter-culture. Some retreat to a dream world that is often enriched by drugs or alcohol. Others physically retreat by running away, but a great number form counter-cultures. Those who join counter-cultures adopt slangs and frequently anti-social behaviors. Often the counter-cultural life is built around a gang which provides close peer group ties, structure, standards, acceptance, protection, illusions of territory or power, and a visible enemy to fight. Hostility toward other gangs interferes with freedom of turf, diverts attention and energy from effective preparation for the struggle against those forces that caused their alienation. In the classroom, the alienated show apathy; they refuse to participate in classroom activities, discussions and assignments. They are disruptive and non-rational in much of their behavior.

Alienation is a woeful status for the young to be cast into. Usually, those forced into severe alienation have suffered, or perceived to have suffered, some gross injustices and inequities. Crime, violence, and terrorism can procede from it. Therefore, it is an explosive irrational emotional attitude, and society would do well to prevent alienation by correcting the major flaws that cause it--discrimination and segregation.

FAMILY DISORGANIZATION--AN EDUCATION HANDICAP

The primary institution from which the child received his first learning experiences is the family. The family teaches and molds the child in the plastic stage of the child's development, and determines to a great extent the child's future direction for learning. It is estimated by some studies that approximately 33 percent of a child's development takes place by the time he or she enters school. Therefore, the structure and status of the disadvantaged family is very much a part of the learning problems of this group of children.

The U. S. Chamber of Commerce's latest census report (1972) shows that two-thirds of all poor Black

families are headed by females. Figures from the 1970 Census show that among Black and Mexican families headed by women, one-half are below the poverty line. The percentage of poor Black families headed by women is more than twice those for other non-Whites, and more than triple those for Whites.

These facts are cited to indicate that the Black child is far more liable than another non-White, or White child to experience an unstable and disrupted home. The unstable and disruptive home is an added woe to the existing poverty of any child. The more often the home is headed by the mother, the more often she is likely to be working, leaving her children in the streets for a large portion of their time.

The Kerner Report (1968) recounted what anyone familiar with the poverty areas already knows. With fathers absent, and with many mothers working, or lacking control over their children, the children spend much time in the streets. In the crime-laden, violence-prone, poverty stricken streets of the ghetto, the image of success is not the solid citizen who is educated and a responsible husband and father; but rather lives on his

wits and exploits other by pimping, running numbers, or selling dope. This kind of hustler is viewed by many adults, and children alike, as being successful because his earnings far outstrip those of the ghetto worker trying to earn an honest living.

Young people, especially ghetto boys, are acutely conscious of a system that appears to reward those who illegally exploit others and give little, if any, status to those who struggle to earn an honest living. For the lack of other models, many poverty area students began to adopt the hustle as a way of life. They disclaim both work and marriage, and form casual relationships. This pattern is reinforced from one generation to the next, and forms a part of the culture of poverty of the ghetto. The life depicted in many Black movies adds more reinforcement to these patterns of slum life, and does not emphasize striving for school success. In fact, by implication, they make a mockery of the middle class school goals of honesty, fair play, hard work, and good citizenship. The popularity and influence of the hustler philosophy of life in the ghetto is reflected somewhat by the wide-

spread wearing of hustler hats and other symbolic clothing, usually by Black ghetto youth.

The status of the Black family has received national attention, and has been the subject of many research projects. The topic has been the center of much controversy and furor in recent years for several reasons. The first being that the Black family is stereotyped as inclusive for all Blacks, and the Black middle class is extremely sensitive to, and irritated at, being included as part of the pathology of the Black poor family. Secondly, even the Black poor convulses at the picture of itself which sociologists present in comparative statistics, contrasting the norms of cultural behavior patterns of middle class Whites with poor Blacks. Thirdly, Blacks contend that White sociologists do not fully understand the dynamics of Black behavior and the Black experience in America's racist society. Such understandings would, avers Blacks, mitigate the statistical comparisons, and psychologically justify the differences.

It should be pointed out here that the Black middle class was riled and exasperated at the Black sociologist, E. Franklin Frazier, when he satirized their

coping behaviors in 1957 with his classical book on the Black middle class, Black Bourgeoisie. He describes, with irony and sarcasm, the futile attempts of middle class Blacks who came to northern cities during the mid-twentieth century to escape the tag of inferiority. The lower class Blacks found refuge from his treatment of disdain, inferiority and segregation within the walls of the Black ghetto. Here, he sang songs of resignation, prayed, danced, ate bar-b-que occasionally, and looked forward to another world where he would escape all pain and live on milk and honey.

But the middle class Blacks could not be placated with the Black folkways. Consequently, they sought compensation by recounting their White heritage (as exhibited by their light skins), they practiced puritanical family and sex mores, and had a passion for college degrees. Their education set them apart from the Black masses, and they used their larger incomes in conspicuous consumption of clothes, automobiles and entertainment. They asserted their cultural superiority and refinement, but were still proclaimed inferior by the Whites they sought to imitate.

The Black middle class are the most unhappy of all Blacks because they are aware of their ascribed inferior status by Whites, and their powerlessness to change it. Frazier is yet being excoriated by Black middle class peers for expressing his impressions of a superficial Black elite who so desperately strives for equality of status.

No report on the Black family incited as much rage among Blacks as Daniel Moynihan's "The Negro Family: The Case for National Action," (1969). This report is of concern to central city urban educators because the Black poor or lower class are the majority of their clients. Miller (1970) comments on the Moynihan report in terms of its central thesis and essence. The central thesis of this report is that something must be done to stabilize the Black family structure.

Moynihan traced the roots of the problem of Blacks to slavery and the Reconstruction Era. He described the the atrocious, repressive and humiliating practices which played havoc with the Black family during this period. Further described were the patterns of discrimination and segregation today which have restricted the Black male in the

opportunity structure, humiliated him, and thwarted his right to manhood and leadership in his own family.

Moynihan contends that the evidence is powerful and persuasive that the Black family in the urban ghettos is crumbling. A smaller Black middle class group has managed to escape this fate, but for the vast numbers of the unskilled, poorly educated city working class, the fabric of conventional social relationships has all but disintegrated. There are indications that the situation may have been arrested in the last few years, but the general post war trend is unmistakable. So long as this situation persists, the cycle of poverty and disadvantage will continue to repeat itself.

Moynihan cites some comparative statistics on the urban White and non-White families as the basis to validate his claim. For example, his statistics demonstrated the following on the instability of marriage among Blacks and Whites in the urban slums:

1. Blacks have a separation rate seven times the White race.

2. Blacks have an absentee rate four times the

White race, and a divorce rate of about three times that of Whites.

3. The illegitimacy rate of Blacks is eight times that of Whites.

A combination of the factors herein listed has led to a stunning increase in the welfare dependency of Blacks to the point where the majority of Black children receive Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) at some point during their childhood. The report stresses the point that for a minority group to have a large segment of its members practice matriarchy, while the dominant group in the population operates under an arrangement of male leadership, is clearly a disadvantage. The symptoms of family pathology which Moynihan stresses which directly affect the child's schooling are:

1. The continuing pattern of matriarchy which robs the Black male of a father figure and undermines his status in the home is directly related to the lower school performance of the Black male as compared to the Black female.

2. White children without fathers at least perceive all about them the pattern of men working. Black

children without fathers do not; they flounder and fail.

3. Poverty, failure and isolation has resulted in a high rate of dope addiction, delinquency, and crime for Black males reared in a home without a father.

4. There is a vicious cycle operating against too many Black males. They have no place in the economic system; as a result, they have great difficulty being strong husbands and fathers.

Therefore, too many Black families break up, and women must assume the task of rearing children without assistance; often the woman must assume the task of bringing in income also. Since the children do not grow up in a stable home, and so learn that they cannot look forward to a stable life, they are not able to accomplish in school, they leave school early, and are therefore in a very poor position to qualify for jobs that will produce a decent income--and the cycle starts again.

Miller (1970) cites the reactions to Moynihan's analysis by some Black intellectuals:

1. Herbert Gans voiced the opinion that instability, illegitimacy and matriarchy are Black adaptations

to economic conditions which Blacks must endure, and will only change with the removal of the condition.

2. Grier and Cobbs, authors of Black Rage, assert that the Black mother deliberately molds the Black male-- blunting his masculine assertiveness and aggression as the best adaptation to an oppressive society that would not tolerate these traits.

Most Black reactions to Moynihan's report were defensive, and cited the need to those trapped in debilitating poverty and inhumane discrimination to cope with the hostile and oppressive environment as best they could. However, one cannot deny Moynihan's data. His recommendations of subsidization and full employment appear to be reasonable, temporary solutions to many of the Black family's problems.

Some of those outraged at the Moynihan report engaged in some rather esoteric moralizations defending the poor and female-headed Black family against moral depravity. Let them be reminded of the exhortations of Sigmund Freud:

We break down not because we are immoral, but because we try to be moral: flaws in the psychic structure impair man's capacity to adjust his needs

to society's taboos; our defenses against our destructiveness are sometimes too vulnerable to maintain our virtue, or too inflexible to preserve our sanity. Morality rests on the inescapable exigencies of human cohabitation.

From an educational point of view, there are many disintegrating factors of negative human relatedness growing out of the unusual amount of matriarchy among the Black poor. The preponderance of females heading Black poverty-level families in the ghettos of Chicago and other cities is highly correlated with, and sometimes directly responsible for, some of the problems of poverty area education. Some of the problems growing out of female-headed families are recounted here.

Kardiner (1964) suggests that no single factor operates in such a direct line to so complex an end product as the broken home. He suggests the following constellations are affected: (1) the paternal ideal is disparaged; (2) the self-esteem system suffers; (3) male emulatory models are destroyed for boys; (4) the mother's affectivity potential is lowered (she is often harsh and demanding); (5) the security, safety and protection of the family is destroyed.

Brembeck (1971) comments on the role of the family as the developer of 33 percent of the child's educational growth before the age of six years. The experiential background which the family should contribute or create is usually very limited in poverty homes headed by women. This serves to retard the 33 percent child development which should be received through the home by age six.

Kvaraceus points out in Negro Concept (1965) that the slum child from a broken home has to cope with the most difficult circumstances faced by a child--an inadequate family living on the edge of economic insufficiency. The impact of the family disruption is accentuated by the incapacity of those rearing the children to provide the experiences and family stability adequate to the guidance.

Dr. James Coleman's study (1968) on equality of education opportunity concluded that the most important variable, in or out of school, in a child's performance was his family's educational background. The second most important variable was the educational background and the social class background of the families of the children in school. These two elements are more important than any physical elements in the school or the teacher. The im-

plications of Dr. Coleman's findings, in his classic study are distressing for thousands of disadvantaged children in Chicago whose homes are headed by poor, poorly educated females who have become disoriented, frustrated and bitter in their struggle for family survival.

Those charged with educating children from matriarcharchal families, analysis and diagnosis notwithstanding, must come to realize what the school can and cannot do. The school can provide some intellectual development to these children, but not without engaging in direct liaison and intervention into the homes to effect some orientation, education and cultural changes in the family heads. The use of indigenous school-community representatives must supplement the teacher's work in the classroom with a linkage of the school, home and community in cooperative effort, asserts Tyler (1971).

Intervention by indigenous community-school agents to effect value changes in the home has wide acceptance in the current literature as a functional technique to improve schooling for the disadvantaged. Some of the approval and acceptance of this intervention technique into the home is based on principles of cultural change

and reinforcement in the home as a requirement for lower class student learning in a middle class oriented school.

Ikenberry (1974) notes that children are born to the most vital and irreplaceable social institution--the family. Socialization and education begin here in the plastic stages of life. Therefore, we can say the family education is both profound and impressionable. During the first five years of life, a crucial phase of children's development takes place which determines, to a degree, future development.

During the children's school years, it is imperative that the family encourage, promote and reinforce their schooling efforts. It is difficult, and in most cases unreal, to expect the school to accomplish that which it is in conflict with, or is not supported by, the family. Inspiring teachers can accomplish much and offset some of the deficiencies of the home. But their impact is limited by family and peer support. Good parents provide children with successful mother and father values. They assist children in building a worthwhile philosophy and value system for life. Disadvantaged children from disorganized, poverty-ridden, and female headed families are

truly deprived. They suffer woe and misfortune that is difficult to overcome. But these children, too, are human beings--the greatest national resource that must be nurtured and developed.

Therefore, the school must search for ways to best promote their learning. This can best be accomplished with compensatory aid--both at the school and with the parents. Dr. Coleman (1968) declared that there is no equal educational opportunity produced in the schools that is independent of the child's family and social environment.

LANGUAGE DIFFERENCES AND DEFICITS--
EFFECT ON EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Brembeck (1971) points out that most of the formal learnings that the school engages the child in, and is responsible for, is imposed upon the child by the particular structure of telling--orally or showing--in print. Such learnings take place outside the context of immediate action, and the degree of actual demonstration and display is limited. Consequently, the cliché "book learning" as applied to the school is appropriate, for approximately

eighty percent of the learning that takes place in the school.

Book learning, being symbolic and carried on vicariously, requires verbal and linguistic development by the learner that is appropriate to the learning context. The manipulation of ideas and conceptualizations, required by the learning structure of the middle class school for the various age and grade levels, is consistent with the verbal and linguistic norms of development that the middle class child has attained at such levels. A major source of the learning problems for the disadvantaged child is linked to his deficits in language development which are directly associated with his subculture.

Therefore, the disadvantaged child, asserts Lawton (1968) is at a vast disadvantage in maintaining a rate of learning equivalent to that of the middle class child. The slower rate of learning attainment, generally, by the disadvantaged child produces a cumulative deficit that widens the gap between the disadvantaged and the middle class child as their schooling continues. Lawton cites numerous studies by various scholars that link the quality of language development directly to cultural

or social class status, and hence, to academic attainment. Formal school learning, because it deals so much with abstractions, is highly dependent upon words and general verbal development which exists on a much higher level in the middle class culture than the disadvantaged culture.

Lawton mentions a study by Pavlov (1941), the celebrated Russian psychologist, whose theory of conditioning in animals he calls the first signal system, also includes some research on words and language which is not quite so well known. Pavlov's extended work considers words to be a second signal system available only to man and an integral part of the first signal system. The integration of the first two systems provides man with his most essential humanity, and enables him to attain the highest form of conceptual thinking.

Lawton cites another study by Vygotsky (1962) which concluded that the speech patterns and structures which the child masters become the basic structures of his thinking. The thought development of the child is determined by the language or the linguistic tools which are acquired from his sociocultural experiences. This infers that inner speech or thought depends on outside factors,

and that the child's intellectual growth is dependent on mastering the social means of thought which is language.

Lawton also cites a study by Allison Davis (1948) which suggests that there are differences in child rearing practices, generally, which affect the personality in an untoward manner. Specific child rearing practices appear to result in the formation of personality traits and habits that adversely affect the child's success in academic attainment. To illustrate, the middle class child is generally weaned earlier, fed on schedule, and toilet trained earlier. This earlier training in basic control of drives contributes to personality differences to defer gratification and channel aggression into socially accepted forms in later life.

Linton's (1945) observation on the intellectual process supports the views of Davis regarding personality's impact on learning. The intellectual processes are considered the highest manifestations of individual psychology. Yet, they are preliminary to habit formation and they expedite the development of overt behavioral responses--which is a function of personality. Deferred gratification, and the directing and controlling of drives, are habit forma-

tions that are required in the discipline of formal learning, and where habits in these areas have been formed in similar activities, it is likely that transfer will take place.

Also cited is a study by Josephine Klein (1965) showing that discipline by social control (whose intention is to control the child for the moment and whose result is approval or disapproval) is generally used by disadvantaged parents while middle class parents largely practice ego control with their children (which is concerned with consequences of actions in terms of the logic of the situation. Middle class parents also practice super ego or conscience control which is concerned with inner considerations of right and wrong, and rather less concerned with the views of other people.

Klein contends that while most adults and children are affected by all three methods of control, the disadvantaged are more affected by social controls which, in turn, affect cognition and speech. Ego and conscience control increase the ability to abstract in general terms from the concrete; to perceive the world as an ordered universe where rational action is rewarded; the ability

to plan ahead; the ability to exercise control. Disadvantaged children and parents talk less about obscure objects and hidden functions. Present wishes, needs and moods are given satisfaction over absent, abstract wishes, needs and moods. Logically, more remote consequences of present actions are ignored, and less talk is engaged in with less elaboration. Furthermore, Klein contends that words are needed to create a conception of an orderly universe in which rationally considered actions are likely to be rewarded over impulsive action. So verbal skills are both motivational and cognitive in their implications.

Lawton (1968) cites M. McCarthy's study (1954) which demonstrated that disadvantaged parents are very likely to be less developed and less skilled linguistically than middle class parents. They are less likely to converse and engage in give and take dialogue with their children. Therefore, they are less adequate speech models, and provide less verbal stimulation to their children, probably because of their impoverished and restricted environment.

Another study by B. Bernstein is noted by Lawton (1968) because it points out other relationships of

language in the middle class environment. This study shows that time, space, and social relationships of language in the middle class environment (and there is a necessity to verbalize feelings) identify cues, and to interpret implications through modes and structures that are part of the dynamic interactions of middle class culture. Language style, and modes of expression with middle class people reflects a more formally organized lifestyle and family structure. It links the middle class family to the middle class oriented school through common understandings of values, roles, and standards of student behavior. Clashes between students and teachers are less likely because of conflicts in language patterns and social interaction.

Ehlers (1973) contains Dorothy Seymour's treatise on Black Children, Black Speech. Seymour traces the dialect of many disadvantaged Blacks back to the linguistic adaptations that West African slaves made to American English. This dialect set up a similar reaction as the foreign language of the student who speaks what English he knows with a foreign pronunciation and accent. The middle class teacher is frequently irritated by the dis-

advantaged child's "bad English," whether it is Black dialect or incorrect English spoken with a combination Spanish and English vocabulary and pronunciation. This rejection or disapproval of the child's language, which is a part of big city culture, is sensed and results frequently in poor mental health on the part of the student, in addition to handicapping him in reading and general educational attainment.

Black disadvantaged parents overwhelmingly prefer that their children be taught standard English at school, a few hard-core militants, notwithstanding. Nevertheless, when the child hears Black dialect in the home, social milieu, and continues to hear and speak it throughout his cultural milieu, the classroom influence of the teacher is not able to compete with the overriding influence of the cultural environment.

Lawton (1968) comments on Bernstein's paper on the implications of linguistic form by pointing out:

Language is one of the most important intervening variables between the individual and behavior, and it would seem that linguistic form orients the individual in one direction, rather than another, and once this direction is given, it is progressively reinforced. The linguistic form is a powerful conditioner of what is "learnt," how it is "learnt," and so influences future learning.

A summary of many studies on language forms and patterns suggest that language conditions observations, interpretations and evaluations of events. It influences social relationships and provides one with individuation. Language not only expresses feeling, it also influences emotions and cognitive style. Language facilitates the manipulation of ideas and concepts, and influences the thought processes.

A final comment from the literature on language deficits and how it affects educational attainment in disadvantaged children is found in Ikenberry (1974). Family background is said to determine, to a large extent, the language development and skills of children, and the tools of form and usage which children bring to school. Social class provides the index to language and other experiences upon which education depends. Since middle class culture dominates our schools, the elaborate code of communication or formal language, the dominant value patterns (competition, punctuality, hard work, cleanliness, etc.), and the external determinants of ability grouping for special education (middle class standardized tests), as well as the instructional program and techniques

to which children are exposed, testify to the recognition that disadvantaged children will, in all likelihood, become increasingly disadvantaged in their present school environment.

If these conclusions are correct, the disadvantaged child has a slight chance of escaping the culture of disadvantage and moving up the ladder of social mobility. His impoverished social environment is cyclic, which operates to stabilize his condition.

SUMMARY

From a review of the literature on paraprofessionals and the education of the disadvantaged, there emanates certain trends, findings, research and knowledge that are of particular interest and concern to those involved in the education of the disadvantaged. This information will be briefly summarized here in the order of the topic heading in the literature review.

Status of Paraprofessionals

1. There are approximately 300,000 paraprofessionals.

2. Thirty percent of the elementary, and 14.7 percent of the high school rooms share teacher aides.

3. The fear of teacher aides replacing teachers is not an issue, and both of the large teacher organizations support teacher aides and other paraprofessionals in the schools.

4. Paraprofessionals' use is expected to proliferate as time goes on to perhaps one for every three teachers.

5. There is need for developing some standards for qualifications, duties, training, inservicing, and career progression for paraprofessionals.

Cultural and Economic Deprivation

1. The American school is established and operates on middle class cultural patterns and norms of education.

2. Lower class or disadvantaged students suffer experience deficits from an impoverished environment in terms of language, values, motivations and other experiential backgrounds that severely handicaps them for equality of educational attainment.

3. Most disadvantaged children suffer continued accumulative deficits in educational attainment as they progress through school.

4. Many middle class teachers do not know, have not been trained, and are ineffective as teachers of disadvantaged children.

5. Attempting to impose middle class behavior patterns on disadvantaged children is practically futile without some intervention into the home by community-based liaison persons.

6. Cultural and economic deprivation are responsible for considerable malnutrition, and prenatal pathologies that result in educational retardation, especially in Black youngsters.

Racism, Segregation and Discrimination

1. Racism, with its segregation and discrimination, is deeply rooted into the American way of life. Recent years has witnessed great progress, but much remains to be done. The education of non-Whites is handicapped by racism.

2. Racism is a moral sin and an economic burden on society. Many citizens, Black and White, abhor racism and are struggling to eradicate it. It is difficult to integrate public schools as long as there is enormous discrimination in housing.

3. To be born non-White in America is a great handicap to being educated.

4. America, at last, faces and recognizes the crisis of racism and its effect on education. There is hope because America has not lost its faith or resolve to fight racism.

Family Disorganization

1. The family is the primary organization from which the child receives the background of experiences prerequisite for successful formal school learning.

2. The type of nurture the child receives during the first five years are crucial to future development, and accounts for up to 33 percent of development.

3. The social class status of the family is highly correlated with the prediction of educational attainment of the child.

4. The school brings little influence to bear on a child's development that is independent of his home background and general social context.

5. The matriarchial character and disorganization of the poor Black family perpetuates a cycle of poverty and tangle of pathology that will continue until the viability of this family is restored.

Language Deficits

1. Linguistic development and verbal skills at the middle class level are prerequisites for a middle class rate of education attainment in the public schools.

2. One of the major problems of the deprived children is their deprivation of language development skills.

3. Language forms and codes influence and reflect a way of life, as well as serve as a medium of communication.

The role and posture of a successful school administrator depends on the context within which he operates. In disadvantaged areas, it has been demonstrated that certain socio-economic conditions, and subcultural patterns of behavior prevail that act as barriers and

obstructions to the fulfillment of middle class school goals. Rarely are school goals attained by the students without the support and reinforcement of their parents and peers. The goals of the schools are conditioned and shaped by the culture within which it operates.

The successful administrator makes use of the techniques, strategies and social dynamics that will involve the parents and larger community in the development of realistic school goals that have promise of attainment. When the goals are developed with full participation of the community, they will usually reflect the cultural norms or values that prevail and/or which the community hopes to arrive at.

Abbott (1973) indicates that the use of school-community representatives from the local social milieu have thus far proven to be the most effective strategy for involving parents in school-community activities, as well as modifying and upgrading the educational norms of the school in disadvantaged areas. It is continually being reiterated throughout this study that good and effective administration has as its ultimate goal the improvement of teaching and learning which includes improvement in:

1. pupil progress and welfare;
2. instructional program;
3. attendance and discipline;
4. health and other referral services;
5. teacher and student morale;
6. teacher and student safety;
7. school climate that is conducive to learning;
8. raising of student aspirations;
9. parental participation in school activities;
10. good will, cooperation and collaborative effort between the school and the community.

The use of teacher aides as teacher helpers has demonstrated that this is probably the most effective technique for providing the individual help that the disadvantaged child needs. Consequently, when the school administrator initiates and establishes techniques, strategies and methodologies that produce improvements in the critical areas of teaching and learning as listed in items one to ten above, he is engaging in effective administrative practices that mark a good administrator.

Using teacher aides, school-community representatives and civilian security aides in disadvantaged schools

can be viewed as an administrative strategy and technique of providing a supportive system to the instructional program that gives the program that extra punch and impact needed to compensate for the many conditions of disadvantagedness which the school children suffer. To illustrate, security of halls, classrooms and property is a critical issue in the ghetto school. Undesirable non-students frequently will enter the school for the purpose of molesting the female students and teachers, burglarizing classrooms and lockers, and engaging in robbery and theft. The use of community persons to provide security provides employment to indigenous people and eliminates the frequent conflict that accompanies security by uniformed policemen.

The teacher aide in the disadvantaged school provides the needed additional educational manpower to assist the teacher in furnishing individual educational assistance. The students and the teacher experience success and goal attainment because of the teacher aide's assistance. Consequently, the teacher aide fills an educational, morale and psychological need that promotes the smooth operation of the school. Hence, the administrator, in utilizing

teacher aides, is using both an administrative and educative strategy that improves the educative and administrative processes.

The illustrations for the civilian security aide and the teacher aide have like application for appropriate duties performed by the school-community representative. The crucial point being emphasized here is the interdependent and individual relationship between the administrative and educative processes.

Moreover, the principal or administrator, to be an effective leader, must be able to generate and keep a steady flow of useful ideas pumped into his teaching staff. These ideas should come from teachers, parents, students, and many diverse sources.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

This is a perceptual study whose data are based on the observations, judgments, assessments and valuations of significant participants involved in the education of disadvantaged children in 14 of 27 Chicago public school districts having a significant majority of disadvantaged children attending the public schools. Some of the data furnished in the teachers' and administrators' questionnaires are based on discrete or documentary qualitative analyses. This fact was discovered through some of the ten interviews for each category of respondents participating in this investigation. Some of the respondents to the interviews also filled out questionnaires; however, the interviews were in addition to the questionnaires.

SUBJECTS

The random samples for this investigation includes the following numbers of significant participants who have participated, as specified, in the educational and admin-

istrative processes in the 14 disadvantaged school districts included in this study.

Filled Out and Returned Questionnaires

1. One hundred high school and elementary school students who were formerly or, are yet, enrolled in rooms using teacher aides; enrolled in projects using school-community representatives; and enrolled in schools using civilian school security aides.

2. One hundred parents of children who have the same characteristics as the students participating in the study. The parents in the study are not, however, necessarily parents of students taking part in the study. In some instances, parents do have children participating in the study.

3. One hundred teachers who have taught in a room where they as teachers used a teacher aide; in a room where a school-community representative served; in a school where there was a civilian school security aide.

4. One hundred principals who served in schools involved in this investigation--where teacher aides, school-community representatives and civilian school

security aides were used at the time of the principals' administration of the schools.

5. Fourteen district superintendents who supervised principals of schools involved in this study.

INTERVIEWS

In addition to the one hundred questionnaires filled out and returned for each of the four separate categories of respondents, the following numbers of respondents were interviewed, using the same questionnaires: ten students; ten parents; ten teachers; ten principals; five directors; four district superintendents; two assistant superintendents; two area associate superintendents. All of the interviewed respondents had had some involvement and interaction with the use of specified paraprofessionals included in this study.

The sample population for this investigation was randomly selected from 255 schools in 14 districts where the level of poverty of students attending the schools ranged from 25 to 80 percent. To maintain a racial mix in the sampling process that approximated 75 percent Black, 15 percent Latino, and 10 percent White population mix in the

study, schools had to be identified for race in the 14 districts before the random sampling process began. Seven of the 14 districts had populations 99 to 100 percent Black. Two districts were 81 to 90 percent Black. Three districts were 50 to 73 percent Black. Two districts were 11 to 16 percent Black. One district was 55 percent White; two 24 percent White; one 13 percent White. The White population in the remaining districts was negligible.

Two districts had 46 to 64 percent Spanish-surnamed populations. Two districts had 12 to 18 percent Spanish-surnamed populations. The remaining districts had insignificant numbers of Spanish-surnamed populations.

The sampling distribution is random and adequate to draw statistical inferences from the population distribution.

MATERIALS

The materials for this study consisted of nine questionnaires. Three questionnaires were completed by student respondents: The one for teacher aides contained eight items; the one for school-community representatives

contained six items; the one for the civilian school security aides contained ten items.

There were three questionnaires to be completed by parents--one for each of the three paraprofessionals under this study. Each questionnaire contained five items.

The same three questionnaires for teachers were also used for administrators. The teacher-administrator questionnaire on teacher aides contained 11 items; the one on school-community representatives, 10 items; the one on civilian school security aides, 10 items.

The questionnaire items contained in the nine questionnaires used in this study were designed by the author of the study to yield perceptual data that would either reject or accept the hypotheses formulated for this study.

The questionnaire items used in the written questionnaires were also used along with several additional questions for the personal interviews. These interviews yielded additional information and findings that will be reported in the results of the study.

The questionnaire items used in this study were field tested and revised several times on subjects akin to

those participating in the actual study before the final refinement was adequate. Participants in the field testing procedures were of the opinion that the final questionnaire items educed from the study subjects the kind of socio-dynamic and psycho-dynamic responses required to provide rejection or acceptance of the study's hypotheses.

The review of the literature indicated that several surveys have been made on paraprofessionals in recent years. Nonetheless, the purposes were somewhat different from this study. Therefore, the questionnaire items for this study were, of necessity, of special design.

PROCEDURES

The entire population embraced by the study consisted of 255 schools having 25 to 80 percent of their student body coming from poverty level families, as determined by the census tract data which is used for the Elementary and Secondary Education Act program. These schools are located in 14 districts that contain poverty ranging in intensity and area up to 80 percent.

Letters were sent to each district superintendent explaining the study and supplying copies of the question-

naires. Each of the 14 district superintendents approved the study, completed a teacher-administrator questionnaire, and returned the approved letter with a completed questionnaire.

Schools were randomly selected for the administrator-teacher sample which was to be sent to principals. To maintain a racial balance consistent with the population distribution, 75 percent of the principal sample was distributed to schools with 80 to 100 percent of disadvantaged Black students; 15 percent of the principal sample was distributed to schools with the largest disadvantaged Spanish-surnamed student populations; 10 percent of the principal sample was distributed to schools with the largest disadvantaged White student populations.

Schools were also randomly selected to distribute the teacher, parent and student questionnaires. The same racial balance was maintained for these questionnaires, as for the principals' questionnaires.

A copy of the letter, showing the district superintendent's approval, was taken to each of the principals in the sample. The project was discussed with the princi-

pals who distributed the appropriate questionnaires randomly to the teachers, parents and students.

The criteria set up for participation of teachers, parents and students were adhered to. Only those who had been directly involved in schools, rooms and programs with the three paraprofessionals in the study were included in the sample.

Teachers and principals agreed to, and assisted in, administering the questionnaires to parents and students who needed help in reading and interpreting the questionnaire items and procedures. Identify of the participant-respondents was not required for any respondents participating in this study.

One hundred questionnaires for principals, teachers, parents and students were collected from the school principals by mail or by hand. Fourteen administrator-teacher questionnaires were collected in like manner.

Interviews were engaged in from a random sample of principals, teachers, students, parents and directors who had been or were yet involved with special projects where the three categories of paraprofessionals involved in this study were employed. Ten principals, teachers, parents and

students were interviewed from this group. Five directors were also interviewed. The four district superintendents, two assistant superintendents and two area associate superintendents involved with the special projects were also interviewed. The interview items were taken from the various appropriate questionnaire items.

In addition to the written questionnaire items for the interviewees' specific categories, interviewees were asked additional questions regarding criteria concerned with:

1. Selection of paraprofessionals
2. Training and inservicing of paraprofessionals
3. Training and inservicing staff who work with and supervise paraprofessionals
4. A career ladder and promotion policy for paraprofessionals
5. How paraprofessionals affect career models for adults and children
6. How employing paraprofessionals contributes to changed cultural patterns of behavior that promotes the learning and the administration of the school program.

7. Job descriptions, role and status of para-professionals.

Interview time consumed per interviewee ranged from 20 minutes (in the case of the students), to 40 or 50 minutes (with some parents, teachers and administrators). Brief summary notes were made which provided an assessment of the responses from each interviewee. These responses included several areas of concern, as already indicated, that were not a part of the written questionnaires. Many of the interviewees asked questions of the interviewer, and engaged in dialogue on the employment of paraprofessionals in the schools. Evaluative comments and observations were made which will be cited in the findings on the interviews.

The 63 interviews, plus the 400 questionnaires, comprised the total data for this study.

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The data collected for this study represent and reflect the judgments, assessments, opinions and evaluations based on observations, reactions and/or interactions of the sample subjects to the role performances of the

three paraprofessionals involved in this study. The principal and teacher responses are based on a modicum of documentary and discrete evidence. The parent and student responses are most likely entirely perceptual. Consequently, with this perceptual study, the statistical technique must be designed with certain assumptions given.

The primary assumption of this study is that the subjects' participants are capable of making reliable assessments of specific aspects of the paraprofessionals' role performances based on specific experiences and interactions with the paraprofessionals. And, that such appraisals are not the results of chance when they are reported within an acceptable range of probability.

Furthermore, the socio and psychodynamic nature of the paraprofessionals' jobs render their role performances amenable to perceptual statistical inferences of the type used in this study. In the interest of clarity, it is from this context that these statistical techniques are employed.

There are seven major hypotheses embraced in this study. Each one postulates that the role performance of the three paraprofessionals in the study contribute to

significantly, influences positively, and/or has significant impact on certain aspects of the administrative and educative processes in disadvantaged schools or communities, and that this impact can be observed and appraised qualitatively.

There are nine questionnaires that have the following number of items:

<u>Name of Questionnaire</u>	<u>Number of Items</u>
Administrator-Teacher Questionnaire	
Teacher Aide	11
School-Community Representative	10
Civilian School Security Aide	10
Parent Questionnaire	
Teacher Aide	5
School-Community Representative	5
Civilian School Security Aide	5
Student Questionnaire	
Teacher Aide	8
School-Community Representative	6
Civilian School Security Aide	10

Each questionnaire item has a five-point answering scale for the response:

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Undecided
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

The statistical techniques employed follow:

A null hypothesis was set up ($H_0: \hat{\pi} = 1/2$) which postulates that teacher aides, school-community representatives and civilian school security aides have no significant impact, influence or affect on specific aspects of the educative and administrative processes in disadvantaged schools or communities. The first two responses, (1) Strongly Agree and (2) Agree, accept their related hypotheses. The other three responses, (3) Undecided, (4) Disagree, and (5) Strongly Disagree reject their related hypotheses. The response sheet is weighted for the null hypothesis, since it has three responses to accept it, and only two responses to reject it. It is also assumed and given that if no more than 51 percent of the respondents' responses deny the null hypothesis, the issue is yet in favor of the null hypothesis.

An alternate hypothesis was set up ($H_I: \hat{p} > 1/2$); H_0 = null hypothesis and H_I = alternate hypothesis. Now it is assumed that in order for H_I to be true, and H_0 to be untenable, H_I must exceed more than 51 percent of the Strongly Agree and Agree responses. The number of responses to each questionnaire items marked Strongly Agree or Agree is calculated and denoted as P ($P = \frac{SA + A}{N}$). H_0 vs H_I can now be tested at the .05 level of significance (we reject H_0 when true only 5 times in 100).

Now, a critical point must be found beyond which H_0 is untenable and H_I must be accepted. This critical point is called P_I or P_C .

If P as observed from data exceeds P_C , reject H_0 and accept H_I (i.e., conclude that the null hypothesis is false; the alternate hypothesis true in 95 cases out of one hundred). P_C when calculated is--

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_C &= 1/2 + f.05 \sqrt{\frac{(1/2)(1/2)}{N}} \\
 &= 1/2 + (1.65)1/2 \sqrt{\frac{1}{100}} \\
 &= .5 + .83 \\
 &= .583
 \end{aligned}$$

Having found P_C , it can now be assumed that whenever P exceeds P_C , H_0 is untenable and we accept H_I .

All questionnaire items are set up to be null hypothesis. H_0 , for the sake of statistical inference, and its opposite is H_I . Whenever H_0 ($P = .583$) is larger than H_I (P), the hypothesis or item is rejected. Whenever P is larger than P_C (.583), the hypothesis or item is accepted.

Therefore, all questionnaire items where the Strongly Agree and Agree responses are greater than .583 of the total responses, the item is accepted.

INTERVIEW STATISTICS

The assessment notes which were made for each interviewee were tabulated. These tabulations indicated whether each interviewee's response was affirmative or negative on the questionnaire and supplemental items. The tabulations from the assessment notes yielded a percentage account of the affirmative and negative responses which will be cited in the next chapter. This was the extent of the interview statistics.

DATA AND DISTRIBUTION COLLECTION CHART

July 18, 1974	<p>A packet was sent to 14 district superintendents containing:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">. nine questionnaires. an exposition of the study. an approval request for particular districts. a request to complete the administrators' questionnaires and return
July 25 to August 3, 1974	<p>Received from 14 district superintendents:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">. completed administrator-teacher questionnaires. approval for the study in their districts
August 15 to September 6, 1974	<p>Questionnaires were sent to 100 principals with cover letter and copy of approval from the district superintendents</p>

September 10 to September 25, 1974	Teacher, parent, and student questionnaires were taken to principals
August 15 to November 4, 1974	All interviews were engaged in with administrators, teachers, parents, and students
September 30 to November 15, 1974	Questionnaires were either picked up or returned by mail
September 30 to November 22, 1974	All questionnaires were tabulated
June, 1974	Met with statistician to discuss statistical design and questionnaire
August 11, 1974	Met with statistician to formulate a statistical design. Statistical design was developed
November, 1974	Met with statistician to refine statistical techniques

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The results revealed through this study were based on the responses by the subjects to the items contained in the nine separate questionnaires. All of the questionnaire items were related to one or more of the study's hypotheses.

Each questionnaire item will be listed with its P score and P_C score. As stated in Chapter III, P_C or critical P was calculated to be .583. It sometimes varies slightly. Whenever P is larger than P_C for any item, it indicates that the item is significantly accepted at the .05 level of significance, with a .05 probability.

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1

The services provided by specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools contribute significantly to meaningful improvements in parental orientation, involvement and reinforcements that enhance the administrative and educative processes.

Hypothesis 2

The role functions of specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools were conducive to significant and meaningful improvements in home intervention, needed student referrals, student self-images and parent-teacher rapport which facilitated the administration of the school and the children's education.

Hypothesis 3

The employment of specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools had a benign impact on classroom activities, teacher-student morale, classroom atmosphere, and good teaching and learning which improved the effective operation and administration of these schools.

Hypothesis 4

The utilization of specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools improved security, reduced or prevented drug traffic, vandalism, and gang activities--all of which improved the administrative-educative processes.

Hypothesis 5

The routine services rendered by specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools provided public service career models, motivation for educational attainment, and generated benign student and parent attitudes which facilitated the successful administration and operation of these schools.

Hypothesis 6

The jobs performed by specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools contributed significantly to improved school attendance, student enjoyment of school, and school holding power which enhanced the effective operation and administration of these schools.

Hypothesis 7

The role functions of specific paraprofessionals in disadvantaged area Chicago public schools contributed significantly to the facilitation of modified cultural changes, attitudes and aspirations regarding education, occupations, and social mobility which improved the administrative and educative processes.

Table 1

Hypothesis 1 - Results of Teacher Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
2	Providing a more conducive learning climate in the classroom	100	.870	.583
4	Positive changes in pupil attitude toward school	100	.810	.583
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
2	Providing a more conducive learning climate in the classroom	100	.880	.583
4	Positive changes in pupil attitude toward school	100	.690	.583
<u>Parent Items</u>				
4	You are engaging in out-of-school activities now that teacher aides are assisting in your child's education	98	.930	.583
5	Your child's self-image and discipline have improved	99	.910	.583

Table 1 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Student Items</u>				
1	I enjoyed going to school more when the teacher aide was present	100	.760	.583
6	The school does a better job of educating me with the services of the teacher aide	99	.879	.583
8	I have a more positive atti- tude toward myself and the school because of the teacher aide	100	.810	.583

Table 2

Hypothesis 1 - Results of School-Community
Representative Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
2	Formation of positive student attitudes toward themselves and the school	95	.768	.585
6	Parental and other community people involvement in school council and other school-community activities	95	.912	.585
9	Acceptance and reinforcement of the school and its program by parents and other community people	95	.874	.585
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
2	Formation of positive student attitudes toward themselves and the school	98	.725	.584
6	Parental and other community people involvement in school council and other school-community activities	97	.784	.584
9	Acceptance and reinforcement of the school and its program by parents and other community people	97	.742	.584

Table 2 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Parent Items</u>				
3	Increased participation and involvement of parents in school-community, and school council activities	100	.920	.583
4	Increased understanding, good will and cooperation between the school, parents, and community people	100	.970	.583
5	Increased activities outside the school that assist your child in getting a better education	100	.940	.583
<u>Student Items</u>				
2	My parents participate more in school activities since our school has had services of the school-community representative	100	.790	.583
4	Our school is a better school because of the services of the school-community representative	100	.790	.583
5	My parents support the school program more since we have had a school-community representative	99	.808	.583

Table 3

Hypothesis 1 - Results of Civilian School
Security Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
10	Improved staff and student morale	70	.857	.599
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
10	Improved staff and student morale	79	.671	.593
<u>Parent Items</u>				
2	Reduction of gang activities on school premises	78	.897	.593
<u>Student Items</u>				
8	Improved student morale	98	.602	.583

Table 4

Hypothesis 2 - Results of Teacher Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
3	Development of positive self-image	100	.840	.583
7	Teacher communication and relationships with parents	99	.788	.583
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
3	Development of positive self-image	100	.720	.583
7	Teacher communication and relationships with parents	100	.800	.583
<u>Parent Items</u>				
1	Your child is more enthusiastic and has a positive attitude toward school	100	.920	.583
5	Your child's self-image and discipline have improved	99	.910	.583

Table 4 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Student Items</u>				
6	I sometimes get into trouble, but the teacher aide helps me to stay out of trouble	99	.878	.583
8	I have a more positive attitude toward myself and the school because of the teacher aide	100	.810	.583

Table 5

Hypothesis 2 - Results of School-Community
Representative Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
2	Providing a more conducive learning climate in the classroom			
3	Development of positive student self-image			
6	Time for teacher to provide individual instruction			
8	Teacher planning and implementing of innovative approaches to helping students learn			
9	Building teacher morale			
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
2	Providing a more conducive learning climate in the classroom			
3	Development of positive student self-image			
6	Time for teacher to provide individual instruction			

Table 5 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Teacher Items (continued)</u>				
8	Teacher planning and implementing of innovative approaches to helping students learn	97	.784	.584
9	Building teacher morale	97	.742	.584
<u>Parent Items</u>				
1	Increase student use of community health, educational and recreational facilities	99	.950	.529
4	Increased understanding, good will and cooperation between the school, parents, and community people	100	.970	.583
<u>Student Items</u>				
1	My parents participate more in school activities since our school has had the services of the school-community representative	100	.940	.583
4	Our school is a better school because of the services of the school-community representative	100	.790	.583

Table 6

Hypothesis 3 - Results of Teacher Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
1	Development of pupil learning skills	100	.870	.583
2	Providing a more conducive learning climate in the classroom	100	.920	.583
6	Time for teacher to provide individual instruction	100	.910	.583
8	Teacher planning and implementing of innovative approaches to helping students learn	100	.790	.583
9	Building teacher morale	90	.822	.583
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
1	Development of pupil learning skills	100	.820	.583
2	Providing a more conducive learning climate in the classroom	100	.880	.583
6	Time for teacher to provide individual instruction	100	.920	.583

Table 6 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Teacher Items (continued)</u>				
8	Teacher planning and implement- ing of innovative approaches to helping students learn	100	.790	.583
9	Building teacher morale	100	.700	.583
<u>Parent Items</u>				
2	The teacher gives your child more individual help	100	.920	.583
<u>Student Items</u>				
1	I enjoyed going to school more when the teacher aide was present	100	.760	.583
2	The teacher aide assisted me in learning to read better, and with my lessons also	100	.860	.583
3	I enjoy reading more as a result of the teacher aide's help	100	.840	.583
4	My teacher was able to help me more individually when the teacher aide was present	100	.880	.583
6	The school does a better job of educating me with the services of the teacher aide	100	.879	.583

Table 7

Hypothesis 3 - Results of School-Community
Representative Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
7	Parental and other community people involvement in establishing school educational goals	95	.778	.583
8	Understanding, good will and cooperation between the school, parents and other community people	95	.915	.584
9	Acceptance and reinforcement of the school and its program by parents and other community people	95	.873	.584
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
7	Parental and other community people involvement in establishing school educational goals	97	.670	.583
8	Understanding, good will and cooperation between the school, parents and other community people	97	.783	.583

Table 7 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Teacher Items</u> (continued)				
9	Acceptance and reinforcement of the school and its program by parents and other community people	97	.742	.583
<u>Parent Items</u>				
3	Increased participation and involvement of parents in school-community and school council activities	100	.920	.582
4	Increased understanding, good will and cooperation between the school, parents, and community people	100	.970	.582
5	Increased activities outside the school that assist your child in getting a better education	100	.940	.582
<u>Student Items</u>				
1	My parents have a better attitude toward the school as a result of the services of the school-community representative	100	.940	.582

Table 7 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Student Items</u> (continued)				
3	I have had fewer discipline problems because of the services of the school-community representative	100	.860	.582
6	I would like to work as a school-community representative when I get out of school	99	.777	.582

Table 8

Hypothesis 3 - Results of Civilian School
Security Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
9	Approved feelings of security and safety by staff and students	70	.942	.598
10	Improved staff and student morale	70	.942	.598
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
9	Approved feelings of security and safety by staff and students	79	.696	.592
10	Improved staff and student morale	79	.670	.592
<u>Parent Items</u>				
2	Reduction of gang activities on school premises	78	.897	.593
3	Reduction of student locker break-ins	77	.883	.594

Table 8 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Student Items</u>				
3	Reduction in theft and damage to faculty automobiles on school premises	97	.732	.583
6	Reduction in gang activities around the school	97	.752	.583
7	Increased feeling of safety and security by students and staff	100	.820	.582
8	Improved student morale	98	.602	.583

Table 9

Hypothesis 4 - Results of Teacher Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
1	Development of pupil learning skills	100	.870	.582
3	Development of positive self-image	100	.840	.582
6	Time for teacher to provide individual instruction	100	.910	.582
8	Teacher planning and implementing of innovative approaches to helping students learn	100	.790	.582
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
1	Development of pupil learning skills	100	.820	.582
3	Development of positive self-image	100	.720	.582
6	Time for teacher to provide individual instruction	100	.920	.582
8	Teacher planning and implementing of innovative approaches to helping students learn	100	.790	.582

Table 9 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Parent Items</u>				
2	The teacher gives your child more individual help	100	.870	.582
3	Your child is more interested in his school work	100	.940	.582
<u>Student Items</u>				
2	The teacher aide assisted me in learning to read better, and with my lessons also	100	.860	.582
4	My teacher was able to help me more individually when the teacher aide was present	100	.880	.582
5	I sometimes get into trouble, but the teacher aide helps me to stay out of trouble	100	.730	.582

Table 10

Hypothesis 4 - Results of School-Community
Representative Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Item</u>				
4	Reduction of student discipline problems	95	.726	.584
<u>Teacher Item</u>				
4	Reduction of student discipline problems	97	.587	.583
<u>Parent Item</u>				
2	Reduction in student discipline	100	.820	.582
<u>Student Item</u>				
3	I have had fewer discipline problems because of the services of the school-community representative	100	.860	.582

Table 11

Hypothesis 4 - Results of Civilian School
Security Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
1	Reduction of stealing and vandalism to staff automobiles parked on and near school premises	72	.777	.597
2	Reduction of window breakage of school building	72	.500	.597
3	Reduction of entering and trespassing in school building of non-desirable and unauthorized persons	72	.902	.597
4	Reduction of student fights in school corridors	71	.845	.597
5	Reduction or prevention of drug peddling on school premises	65	.707	.602
6	Reduction of student locker break-ins	60	.783	.606
7	Reduction of gang activities on school premises	68	.852	.593
9	Improved feelings of security and safety by staff and students	70	.942	.599

Table 11 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
1	Reduction of stealing and vandalism to staff automobiles parked on and near school premises	81	.605	.592
2	Reduction of window breakage of school building	72	.528	.597
3	Reduction of entering and trespassing in school building of non-desirable and unauthorized persons	82	.939	.591
4	Reduction of student fights in school corridors	81	.753	.592
5	Reduction or prevention of drug peddling on school premises	81	.494	.592
6	Reduction of student locker break-ins	78	.551	.593
7	Reduction of gang activities on school premises	79	.671	.593
9	Improved feelings of security and safety by staff and students	79	.696	.593

Table 11 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Parent Items</u>				
1	Reduction in parental visits to school on discipline of the children	78	.782	.593
2	Reduction of gang activities on school premises	78	.897	.593
3	Reduction of student locker break-ins	77	.883	.594
5	Reduction in student fights	77	.909	.594
<u>Student Items</u>				
1	Reduction in locker thefts	100	.770	.583
2	Reduction of window breakage	100	.670	.583
3	Reduction in theft and damage to faculty automobiles on school premises	97	.732	.584
4	Reduction or prevention of drug traffic on school premises	100	.670	.583
5	Reduction in trespassing and entering of building by undesirable and unauthorized persons	98	.745	.583

Table 11 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Student Items</u> (continued)				
6	Reduction in gang activities around the school	97	.753	.584
7	Increased feeling of safety and security by students and staff	100	.820	.583

Table 12

Hypothesis 5 - Results of Teacher Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
none applicable				
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
none applicable				
<u>Parent Item</u>				
3	Your child is more interested in his school work	100	.940	.583
<u>Student Items</u>				
1	I enjoyed going to school more when the teacher aide was present	100	.760	.583
6	The school does a better job of educating me with the services of the teacher aide	99	.879	.583
7	I would like to get a job as a teacher aide when I grow up	100	.740	.583
8	I have a more positive attitude toward myself and the school because of the teacher aide	100	.810	.583

Table 13

Hypothesis 5 - Results of School-Community
Representative Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
2	Formation of positive student attitudes toward themselves and the school	95	.768	.585
3	Student use of community health, recreational and educational facilities	95	.790	.585
6	Parental and other community people involvement in school council and other school-community activities	95	.916	.585
9	Acceptance and reinforcement of the school and its program by parents and other community people	95	.874	.585
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
2	Formation of positive student attitudes toward themselves and the school	98	.725	.583
3	Student use of community health, recreational and educational facilities	97	.629	.584

Table 13 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Teacher Items</u> (continued)				
6	Parental and other community people involvement in school council and other school-community activities	97	.784	.584
9	Acceptance and reinforcement of the school and its program by parents and other community persons	97	.742	.584
<u>Parent Items</u>				
3	Increased participation and involvement of parents in school-community, and school council activities	100	.920	.583
4	Increased understanding, good will and cooperation between the school, parents, and community people	100	.970	.583
<u>Student Items</u>				
2	My parents participate more in school activities since our school has had services of the school-community representative	100	.790	.583

Table 13 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Student Items</u> (continued)				
5	My parents support the school program more since we have had a school-community representative	99	.808	.583
6	I would like to work as a school-community representative when I get out of school	99	.778	.583

Table 14

Hypothesis 5 - Results of Civilian School
Security Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
	none applicable			
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
	none applicable			
<u>Parent Items</u>				
	none applicable			
<u>Student Items</u>				
9	Civilian school security aides are preferred by me to plain- clothes or uniformed policemen	98	.765	.583
10	Civilian security aides are more effective in the schools than part-time policemen in civilian clothes	98	.704	.583

Table 15

Hypothesis 6 - Results of Teacher Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
4	Positive changes in pupil attitude toward school	100	.810	.583
11	Providing a more conducive learning climate in the classroom	99	.919	.583
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
4	Positive changes in pupil attitude toward school	100	.690	.583
11	Providing a more conducive learning climate in the classroom	100	.880	.583
<u>Parent Items</u>				
1	Your child is more enthusiastic and has a positive attitude toward school	100	.920	.583
3	Your child is more interested in his school work	100	.940	.583

Table 15 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Student Items</u>				
1	I enjoyed going to school more when the teacher aide was present	100	.760	.583
3	I enjoy reading more as a result of the teacher aide's help	100	.840	.583
7	I would like to get a job as a teacher aide when I grow up	100	.740	.583
8	I have a more positive atti- tude toward myself and the school because of the teacher aide	100	.810	.583

Table 16

Hypothesis 6 - Results of School-Community
Relations Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
1	Student school attendance	95	.874	.585
2	Formation of positive student attitudes toward themselves and the school	95	.768	.585
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
1	Student school attendance	97	.721	.584
2	Formation of positive student attitudes toward themselves and the school	98	.725	.583
<u>Parent Items</u>				
none applicable				
<u>Student Items</u>				
4	Our school is a better school because of the services of the school-community representative	100	.940	.583
6	I would like to work as a school- community representative when I get out of school	99	.778	.583

Table 17

Hypothesis 6 - Results of Civilian School
Security Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
	none applicable			
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
	none applicable			
<u>Parent Item</u>				
2	Reduction of gang activities on school premises	78	.897	.593
<u>Student Items</u>				
6	Reduction in gang activities around the school	97	.753	.584
7	Increased feeling of safety and security by students and staff	100	.820	.583

Table 18

Hypothesis 7 - Results of Teacher Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
4	Positive changes in pupil attendance toward school	100	.810	.583
5	Improving student morale	100	.810	.583
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
4	Positive changes in pupil attendance toward school	100	.690	.583
5	Improving student morale	100	.740	.583
<u>Parent Items</u>				
1	Your child is more enthusiastic and has a positive attitude toward school	100	.920	.583
3	Your child is more interested in his school work	100	.940	.583
4	You are engaging in out-of-school activities now that teacher aides are assisting in your child's education	98	.930	.583

Table 18 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Student Items</u>				
7	I would like to get a job as a teacher aide when I grow up	100	.740	.583
8	I have a more positive attitude toward myself and the school because of the teacher aide	100	.810	.583

Table 19

Hypothesis 7 - Results of School-Community
Representative Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
2	Formation of positive student attitudes toward themselves and the school	95	.768	.585
6	Parental and other community people involvement in school council and other school-community activities	95	.916	.585
7	Parental and other community people involvement in establishing school educational goals	95	.779	.585
8	Understandings, good will and cooperation between the school, parents and other community people	95	.916	.585
9	Acceptance and reinforcement of the school and its program by parents and other community people	95	.874	.585
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
2	Formation of positive student attitudes toward themselves and the school	98	.725	.583

Table 19 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	C
<u>Teacher Items</u> (continued)				
6	Parental and other community people involvement in school council and other school-community activities	97	.784	.585
7	Parental and other community people involvement in establishing school educational goals	97	.670	.584
8	Understandings, good will and cooperation between the school, parents and other community people	97	.785	.584
9	Acceptance and reinforcement of the school and its program by parents and other community people	97	.742	.584
<u>Parent Items</u>				
3	Increased participation and involvement of parents in school-community, and school council activities	100	.920	.583
4	Increased understanding, good will and cooperation between the school, parents and community people	100	.970	.583

Table 19 (continued)

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Parent Items</u> (continued)				
5	Increased activities outside the school that assist your child in getting a better education	100	.940	.583
<u>Student Items</u>				
1	My parents have a better attitude toward the school as a result of the services of the school-community representative	100	.940	.583
3	I have had fewer discipline problems because of the services of the school-community representative	100	.940	.583
5	My parents support the school program more since we have had a school-community representative	99	.808	.583
6	I would like to work as a school-community representative when I get out of school	99	.778	.583

Table 20

Hypothesis 7 - Results of Civilian School
Security Aide Position

Item No.		N	P	P _C
<u>Administrator Items</u>				
	none applicable			
<u>Teacher Items</u>				
	none applicable			
<u>Parent Item</u>				
2	Reduction of gang activities on school premises	78	.897	.593
<u>Student Items</u>				
1	Reduction of locker thefts	100	.770	.583
8	Improved student morale	98	.602	.583
9	Civilian school security aides are preferred by me to plain- clothes or uniformed policemen	98	.765	.583

SUMMARY AND ADMINISTRATIVE IMPLICATIONS
OF DATA FINDINGS

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 was accepted by the findings for all three paraprofessionals in this study. The implications for administrators which these findings demonstrate are clear. The utilization of teacher aides, school-community representatives and civilian security aides does contribute significantly to, brings about meaningful improvements in, and has a benign impact on parental orientation and education. There is also benign influence felt in the modification of community cultural patterns which affects education positively. Increased parental involvement in school-community affairs, and a feeling by the children that the school is theirs are other outcomes related to this hypothesis that were validated.

Therefore, an administrator in a disadvantaged area school, who needs or desires to improve his operation in any of the areas listed in Hypothesis 1, can do so through the use of specific paraprofessionals.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 was accepted by the findings for teacher aides and school-community representatives. There were no questionnaire items related to this hypothesis on the civilian school security aide questionnaire.

The implications for administrators are again very clear. School-community representatives are effective in involving parents in the school-community activities, assisting in the referral of children to other agencies for special services, and in improving communication and the self-image of parents and children.

An administrator having problems related to parent involvement, student referrals, and teacher-parent communications can use school-community representatives and teacher aides as an administrative technique to alleviate and correct the situation.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 was accepted for all three paraprofessionals in this study. The findings indicate that an administrator can improve many aspects of the school's program through the use of specific paraprofessionals that are beneficial to the administrative operation. The find-

ings indicate that the teacher aide has a positive impact on student learning in the classroom because she/he relieves the teacher of many non-teaching chores that enable the teacher to devote more time to individual student assistance. Moreover, the teacher aide also engages in tutoring and other learning activities that are helpful to students, improves teacher and student morale, and generates a conducive learning atmosphere. Also, an atmosphere of security, good will and cooperation is generated by the job performance of security aides and school-community representatives.

The positive impact of all three paraprofessional positions on the administration and operation of the school stems from the administrative decision to employ paraprofessionals as a part of the staffing patterns.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 was accepted by the data findings for all three paraprofessionals. The civilian security aide's role was related more directly to, and applicable to, this hypothesis more than the other two paraprofessional roles. Security and safety are of serious concern in disadvantaged schools for students, teachers and administrators. More-

over, drug traffic, vandalism and gang activities continue to plague the disadvantaged school administrator.

The finding in this study demonstrate that security, safety and drug and gang related problems are reduced and/or eliminated through the routine roles of specific paraprofessionals. The implications for the administrator are clear--employing specific paraprofessionals, especially civilian security aides, prevents and alleviates the security, gang and drug problems in disadvantaged area schools.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 was accepted by the data findings for all three paraprofessional positions. The administrator-teacher questionnaire did not have items applicable to this hypothesis. Nevertheless, those teachers and administrators who were interviewed accepted this hypothesis. The parent and student questionnaires contained pertinent items relating to the hypothesis, and accepted it.

The implications for the administrator are clearly indicated. Creating career opportunities through paraprofessional employment creates motivation and models for students, along with good will, parental orientation and

involvement in school affairs. A favorable attitude toward the school and the administrator resulted from the administrative decisions which created jobs within the community. Jobs are more scarce in the disadvantaged areas than elsewhere, and the administrator creates many benign administrative, educative and economic benefits through a decision creating paraprofessional public service jobs.

Equally important for the administrator is the effect upon youth of the models created for them through employment in the school by people from the community. Alienation is negated, and positive motivation is created. The administrator's discipline and attendance problems are diminished.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 was accepted by the data findings for all positions. This hypothesis indicated that specific paraprofessionals do create or modify some basic cultural changes that are beneficial to the administration of the school, and the attainment of its goals.

For the administrator, the implications are explicit. Indigenous paraprofessionals are successful in

bringing about cultural changes necessary to the effective administration and operation of the school. Without the basic behavioral changes provided through the dynamics of culture, successful operation and administration of the school is unlikely.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 was accepted by the data findings for all paraprofessional positions. The implications for the administrator are these: improvements in the student attitudes toward work; increasing the level of student aspirations for occupations and social mobility are upgrading to disadvantaged areas. The administrator's role and the school's objectives which he implements require the upgrading of student aspirations and subsequent student mobility. The strategy of using paraprofessionals in his school is a decision he can make to accomplish this objective.

A final statement on the data findings for all hypotheses in this study may be thus summarized:

1. The seven encompassing hypotheses focused on items that are fundamental and paramount to the successful

operation of an educational institution (a school).

2. All hypotheses were accepted by the data findings. The implications for the administrator or administration are clear in terms of this study's findings.

3. The utilization of trained teacher aides, school-community representatives, and civilian security aides in disadvantaged area public schools in Chicago contributed significantly to fundamental aspects and areas of these schools' administration and operation. Moreover, this utilization of paraprofessionals made meaningful improvements in the basic administrative-educative processes. This includes teaching, learning, parental reinforcement, and the operation of the school facility.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, ANALYSES, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was initiated from a compelling obligation to augment the inadequate store of research on improving the administrative and educative processes for disadvantaged children. Further impetus for this study was belief and faith based on plausible, but inadequate, assessments that specific indigenous paraprofessionals contribute significantly to, influence vastly, and have crucial impact on the administrative and educative processes of disadvantaged children in their normal role functions. This belief underlined the primary hypotheses advanced by this study.

Having been involved directly with the administration and education of disadvantaged children from the poverty areas of Chicago for 18 years, the researcher was aware of the multiplicity of problems that obstructed the path to adequate, functional and equal education for them. A review and analysis of the current problems and barriers, which confront disadvantaged children and their families

along the road to educational attainment, were both imperative and mandatory for this study to determine the impact and effectiveness of an administrative strategy, such as using paraprofessionals in disadvantaged schools.

In this investigation, a very significant majority of 400 administrators, teachers, parents and students through questionnaires, and 63 through interviews, have perceived some definite opinions, judgments and appraisals on paraprofessionals. These persons have perceived--in light of, and because of their experiences with paraprofessionals--that the paraprofessionals' role performances in the schools and communities have very positive influences on the administrative and educative processes. The paraprofessionals' role performances have been perceived as having significant impact and effect on the modification of cultural patterns among parents and students that improve the administrative and educational processes for disadvantaged children. The appraisal of the role performances of paraprofessionals by administrators, teachers, students and parents are subjective acts involving perception. What these persons perceived was what was real to them, and it can be reasonably deduced that this sample

represents the appraisal of other like subjects in disadvantaged areas. Therefore, the reasons supporting the effectiveness of paraprofessionals in Chicago's disadvantaged schools is compelling and opposition to it is incredible, based on the statistical findings of this study.

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions of this study are based on the responses of the participants (parents, students, teachers, and administrators) to the questionnaire items. Each conclusion indicates that a significant number of participants have validated the conclusions through their responses to the conclusion statement, or one of the same essence.

Teacher Aides

1. Seventy-six percent of the students perceived the services of the teacher aide as being significantly conducive to their enjoyment and liking for school.

2. Eighty-six percent of the students perceived the services of the teacher aide as being significantly conducive to their academic success because of the added individual attention.

3. Eighty-four percent of the students believed the services of the teacher aide were significantly conducive to their enjoyment of reading, and learning to read better.

4. Eighty-eight percent of the students perceived the services of the teacher aide as significantly conducive to them receiving a better education.

5. Seventy-three percent of the students perceived the services of the teacher aide as significantly conducive to a career model.

6. Eighty-one percent of the students perceived the role of the teacher aide as significantly conducive to their development of a more positive self-image.

7. Eighty-two percent of the teachers and eighty-seven percent of the administrators perceived the services of the teacher aide as significantly conducive to improvement of learning skills in the children.

8. Ninety-two percent of the teachers indicated the services of the teacher aide were significantly conducive to their spending more individual time with their students.

9. Seventy-nine percent of the teachers indicated that the services of the teacher aide were significantly conducive to their planning and implementing more innovative learning programs.

10. Ninety-one percent of the administrators perceived the services of the teacher aide as significantly conducive to administrator morale.

School-Community Representatives

1. Eighty-seven percent of the administrators and seventy-two percent of the teachers indicated that the school-community representative's role is significantly conducive to improved student attendance.

2. Seventy-eight percent of the administrators perceive the school-community representative's services as being significantly conducive to improved student use of community health, recreational and educational facilities.

3. Seventy-two percent of the administrators perceived the services of the school-community representative as significantly conducive to improvements in student discipline.

4. Ninety-two percent of the parents perceived the services of the school-community representative as

significantly conducive to the parents' increased participation and involvement in school-community affairs.

5. Ninety-four percent of the parents indicated that the services of the school-community representative were significantly conducive to their children's increased use of community health, recreation, and education facilities.

6. Ninety-seven percent of the parents perceived the services of the school-community representative as being significantly conducive to good will, understanding, and cooperation between the school and community people.

7. Ninety-four percent of the parents indicated that the services of the school-community representative were significantly conducive to their increased activities outside school that promoted their children's education.

8. Seventy-nine percent of the students perceived the services of the school-community representative as significantly conducive to their parents' participation in school-community activities.

9. Seventy-seven percent of the students indicated they would like to become employed as school-community representatives.

10. Eighty percent of the students perceived the school-community representatives' services as being significantly conducive to their parents' support of the schools and its programs.

Civilian School Security Aides

1. Seventy-seven percent of the administrators perceived the services of the civilian school security aide as significantly conducive to a reduction in the thefts and vandalisms of staff automobiles.

2. Eighty-four percent of the administrators and seventy-five percent of the teachers perceived the services of the civilian school security aides as significantly contributing to the reduction of student fights in school corridors.

3. Eighty-five percent of the administrators and sixty-seven percent of the teachers perceived the services of the civilian school security aide as significantly contributing to the reduction in gang activities on school premises.

4. Ninety percent of the administrators and ninety-three percent of the teachers perceived the services of the civilian school security aide as significantly con-

ducive to the reduction of the entering and trespassing of non-desirables in the school buildings.

5. Seventy-six percent of the students preferred civilian school security aides to uniformed policemen as school safety staff.

6. Eighty-two percent of the students perceived the services of the civilian school security aides as significantly conducive to the safety and security of the schools.

Interviews

An evaluative tabulation of the notes made on each of the 63 interviewees indicated that from 75 to 95 percent of all the interviewees gave affirmative responses to both the questionnaires and supplemental items which comprised the interviews. There are some typical responses to specific interview items. For example, 90 percent of the teachers interviewed made the following comments in essence:

Teachers should have considerable input into the duties performed by teacher aides in the teachers' rooms.

Teachers should be involved in the training, orientation, and inservicing of teacher aides.

I can profitably use a teacher aide in my room.

All teacher aides need some training and orientation before being placed into a room with a teacher.

Some typical administrator comments from 90 percent of the administrators were:

We need to train and provide inservice to all paraprofessionals with some uniform criteria.

I would prefer to select, or have my school council assist me in selecting, paraprofessionals who work in my school.

School-community representatives have helped me to improve relations with parents and other community people.

The principal should play the primary role in determining the duties of paraprofessionals in his or her school.

Some typical parental responses to questionnaire items by 85 percent of the parents were:

We need teacher aides in every teacher's room.

School-community representatives are responsible for increasing my involvement in school-community affairs.

I believe paraprofessionals are good career models for students and parents.

Paraprofessionals promote learning by changing people's attitudes (making cultural changes).

Eighty-five percent of the students made the following typical responses to interview items:

Teacher aides help students to learn.

Civilian school security aides keep undesirables out of the halls.

I would like to work as a paraprofessional after finishing high school.

These typical responses by an overwhelming majority of interviewees indicate their special areas of interest and concern with regards to paraprofessionals.

ANALYSES

Teacher Aides

An analysis of the conclusions relative to this study reveal that the teacher aide's services in the disadvantaged schools are very beneficial to students, teachers and administrators. The added staffing provided by the teacher aide enables the teacher to plan and implement more innovative projects, and give more individual attention to students needing it. Consequently, students' development of learning skills, and attainment of academic success is enhanced.

These phenomena create positive attitudes, regards and likings for school by the student. The teacher gains a sense of achievement from the student's success. The

administrator's role is successful because good teaching and learning are being conducted. Hence, a sense of accomplishment boosts the morale of student, teacher and administrator.

The barren and impoverished background of the disadvantaged student renders him less able to accomplish the school learning tasks without support and assistance. This condition would support the assumption that teacher aides are probably more important and needed by the disadvantaged student than by those more fortunate ones.

School-Community Representatives

An analysis of the conclusions on the school-community representative position indicates that the services performed by the school-community representatives are very crucial in the disadvantaged area schools. The school-community representative should be indigenous to the school community, and understand the dynamics of its culture. For in most areas, there is a need for some modification of basic cultural values on the part of parents, students and other community people.

There is also a need for some profound understandings, empathy and compassion on the part of teachers and

administrators for the life-style and living conditions of the disadvantaged.

The conclusions from the data indicate that the school-community representatives have been significant agents in generating good will, cooperation and understanding between the middle class oriented school, and the lower class community. This condition has lead to wider acceptance of the school and its program, broader involvement by parents in the school community activities, and some cultural changes or value changes by parents and students that promoted learning.

Mutual respects have also been established through the services of the school-community representative. The school-community representative, although he or she may be a part of the poverty culture, is desirous of upward mobility and personify the rewards and status that go with the acceptance of some cultural modification.

Civilian School Security Aides

An analysis of the conclusions on the civilian school security aide position indicates that security and safety are crucial problems in many poverty area schools, and are of concern to students, teachers and administrators.

The entering and trespassing in the school building by undesirable persons, the vandalism and thefts from the school and its premises, and the invasion of the school premises by youth street gangs are major problems. Drug peddling, and the molesting and assault on females are also on the rise.

The employment of civilian school security aides is perceived by students and staff as contributing to the significant reduction of activities that induce fear for safety and security. Administrators realize that when students and staff fear for the safety and security of their person and property on the school premises, morale is lowered and the school operation begins to suffer the flight of many students and staff. No school will continue to attract students and staff whose reputation for safety and security is woeful.

Interviews

An analysis of the typical responses to interviews mentioned earlier in the chapter is obviously self-evident. To illustrate, teachers are concerned that they should be the ones to make the major decisions regarding what the teacher aides should do in their rooms. This is understandable,

since the teacher is the professional person responsible for his or her room. Nonetheless, the consensus among administrators is that the duties of teacher aides should have some uniformity.

Principals, generally, would like to select paraprofessionals for their schools. Many principals know parents and other community people who are compatible and amenable. Many principals have had volunteers, or know parents whom they consider capable and worthy of paraprofessional positions, and whom they perceive as being compatible, capable and loyal workers.

The principals expressed a desire for some standard criteria which they would set for the duties of paraprofessionals. They believed standards would result in better service to children, and prevent controversy and conflict which the lack of standards create.

An analysis of typical parental responses shows the parents' vast confidence in the teacher aides' ability, and prospect of aiding their children to learn. This assumption may very well account for the parental desire to see a teacher aide in every room. Both teachers and parents indicate, by their responses, the beneficial effect

that the paraprofessionals make as career models. The need for employment in disadvantaged areas may, in all likelihood, underlie this attitude by both parents and students.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has produced some data whose conclusions, analyses, and implications indicate the impact of indigenous paraprofessionals on the administration of poverty area schools. This impact is profound and pervasive, and affects the most vital areas of these schools' operations.

Perhaps the most critical impact of the paraprofessionals is their effect as the agents of cultural change. Their roles and services--as liaison articulators of good will, mutual understanding and cooperation--modifies attitudes, assumptions and feelings of mutual respect and humaneness on the part of school staff, administrators, students, parents, and other community people.

It is this change in attitudes and assumptions that is necessary for the behavioral changes in adults and children that will enable the school to operate properly, and

be an effective educational institution in the life of the community.

The conclusions and implications proceeding from the data of this study mandate the following recommendations for the disadvantaged area public schools in Chicago.

1. Teacher aides should be used in every room in schools in disadvantaged areas, or one teacher aide for two rooms until enough can be hired.
2. There should be one school-community representative for every 100 to 200 children, to make home visits and work in conjunction with the teacher and teacher aide.
3. All school security aides would be indigenous men or women from the school attendance areas. The number of security aides would be determined by need.
4. All three of the paraprofessionals would be people well acquainted with, and well liked in the community, as well as of good character.
5. All paraprofessionals would be trained by a combination of school staff, business, civic and community leaders in a structured program.

6. All paraprofessionals would be on a career ladder. Those desiring to advance themselves should be directed to special college programs for this purpose.

7. There should be continuous ongoing inservice for paraprofessionals, and salaries should be linked to advanced training.

8. Class size might be increased by one or two students in rooms where there are teacher aides.

9. Administrators, teachers, and other school staff should receive inservice training that would provide appropriate orientation on the role and status of paraprofessionals in the schools. This orientation should seek to establish mutual respect, cordiality and appreciation for the paraprofessionals, and their acceptance and incorporation into the school staffing patterns.

REFERENCES

REFERENCES

- Abbott, Jerry L. The Auxiliary Teacher Program: A Complete Manual and Guide. West Nyack, N.Y.: Parker Publishing Co., 1973.
- Atwell, Gladstone H. "Utilization and Training of Paraprofessionals, New York City, 1967-1971." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1972.
- Ausubel, David P. and Pearl Ausubel. Education in Depressed Areas. New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1963.
- Bagdikian, Ben J. In the Midst of Plenty: The Poor in America. Boston: Beacon Press, 1964.
- Bakalis, Michael J. Action Goals for the Seventies: An Agenda for Illinois Education. Illinois: Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1972.
- Baltzell, E. Digby. The Protestant Establishment: Aristocracy and Caste in America. New York: Vintage Books, 1966.
- Bard, Bernard. "The Battle for School Jobs: New York's Newest Agony," Phi Delta Kappan (May, 1972), 553-558.
- Biehler, Robert F. Psychology of Applied Teaching. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1971.
- Birch, Herbert G. and Joan Dye Gussow. Disadvantaged Children: Health, Nutrition, and School Failure. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1970.
- Bloom, Benjamin S. Stability and Challenge in Human Characteristics. New York: Wiley and Sons, 1964.

- Brazziel, William F. "Quality Education for Minorities," Phi Delta Kappan (May, 1972), 547-552.
- Brembeck, Cole S. Social Foundations of Education: Environmental Influences in Teaching and Learning. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966.
- Brighton, Howard. Utilizing Teacher Aides in Differentiated Staffing. Midland, Mich.: Pendell Publishing Co., 1973.
- Brimmer, Andrew F. "Education and Income in the Black Community," Integrated Education, XI, No. 6 (November-December, 1973), 3-5.
- Burden, Larry and Robert L. Whitt. The Community School Principal - New Horizon. Midland, Mich.: Pendell Publishing Co., 1973.
- Campbell, Raold F. and Russell T. Gregg, eds. Administrative Behavior in Education. New York: Harper Bros., 1957.
- Campbell, Robert. The Chasm: The Life and Death of a Great Experiment in Ghetto Education. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1974.
- Canady, Robert Lynn. "Role Descriptors for Paraprofessionals in the Tennessee Public Schools: An Investigation of Perceptions at Various Professional Levels." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Tennessee, 1970.
- Carter-Wooby, Amelia R. "Memoirs of an Inner City School Teacher: Where Students and Teachers Alike Are Victims of the System," Changing Education, VI, No. 1 (Summer, 1974), 17-22.
- Catherine, Ramona. "Incentives for Success: Parent Paraprofessionals and the Schools." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1970.
- Chicago Board of Education. Facts and Figures - 1972-73. Chicago: Board of Education, 1973.

- Chicago Board of Education. Racial Survey - Student. Chicago: Board of Education, 1973.
- Chicago Board of Education. Reading: Top Priority, ESEA Title I. Chicago: Board of Education, 1972.
- Chicago Board of Education. Report on the Citywide Testing Program, 1972-73. Chicago: Board of Education, 1973.
- Clark, David S. What Freud Really Said. New York: Stockton Books, 1965.
- Clyne, Peter. The Disadvantaged Adult. London: Longmans Group, 1972.
- Coleman, James. Equality of Educational Opportunity. Health, Education and Welfare. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966.
- Comer, James P. "Are We Failing Our Children?" Ebony XXIX, No. 10 (August, 1974), 54-62.
- Conant, James B. Slums and Suburbs. New York: Signet Books, 1961.
- Corwin, Ronald G. Education in Crisis: A Sociological Analysis of Schools and Universities in Transition. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1974.
- Cottle, Thomas J. "The Equally Good Off, and the Equally Bad Off," Urban Education, IX, 1 (April, 1974), 99-110.
- DaSilva, Benjamin and Richard D. Lucas. Practical School Volunteer and Teacher Aide Program. West Nyack, N.Y.: Parker, 1974.
- Dempsey, Richard A. and Rodney P. Smith. Differentiated Staffing. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972.

- Deshler, Betty and John L. Erlich. "Citizen Involvement: Evolution in the Revolution," Phi Delta Kappan, LIV, No. 3 (November, 1972), 173-175.
- Dewey, John. Experience and Education. London: Collier MacMillan, 1938.
- Ebel, Robert L. "What Are Schools For?" Phi Delta Kappan, LIV, No. 1 (September, 1972), 3-7.
- Edwards, Newton and Herman Richey. The School in the American Social Order. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1963.
- Ehlers, Henry. Crucial Issues in Education. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1955.
- Elasser, Glen. "U.S. Census Study How Poverty Affects 589,175 in Chicago." Chicago Tribune, February 21, 1972.
- Erb, Jane. "Use of Paraprofessionals," Educational Leadership, V. 29, 4 (January, 1972), 323-326.
- Frazier, E. Franklin. Negro Youth at the Crossways: Their Personality Development in the Middle States. New York: Schocken Books, 1967.
- Frederick, Wayne C. and Herbert J. Klausmeier. "Cognitive Style: A Description," Educational Leadership, XXVII, No. 7 (April, 1970), 668-672.
- Frost, Joe L. and T. Thomas Rowland. Compensatory Programming: The Acid Test of American Education. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown, 1971.
- Gallagher, James J. "Phenomenal Growth and New Problems Characterize Special Education," Phi Delta Kappan, LV, No. 8 (April, 1974), 516-520.
- Gallup, George H. "The Fourth Annual Gallup Poll of Public Attitudes Toward Education," Phi Delta Kappan, LIV, No. 1 (September, 1972), 33-46.

- _____. "Sixth Annual Gallop Poll of Public Attitudes Toward Education," Phi Delta Kappan, LVI, No. 1 (September, 1974), 20-32.
- Gartner, Alan and Frank Riessman. "The Unique Educational Crisis of the Service Category," Integrated Education, XII, 4 (July-August, 1974), 3-5.
- Gattman, Eric and William Hendricks. The Other Teacher: Aides to Learning. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1973.
- Giardini, Patricia S. "A Comparative Study of Two Paraprofessional Counseling Programs for the Disadvantaged." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1973.
- Ginsbert, Eli. "The Reform of Urban Schools: Illusion or Reality?" Phi Delta Kappan, LII, No. 3 (November, 1970), 176-179.
- Glasser, William. Schools Without Failure. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.
- Glovinsky, Arnold. The Practice and the Promise. Detroit: Wayne County Schools, 1968.
- Goulet, Richard. "Cultivating a New Crop of Human Resources with ESEA Title III," The National Elementary Principal, XLVI, 6 (May, 1967), 49.
- Gowan, John Curtis, ed. The Disadvantaged and Potential Dropout: Compensatory Educational Programs. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1966.
- Grant, W. Vance. "Education's New Scorecard," American Education, VIII, No. 8 (October, 1972), 4-7.
- Greve, Fred John. "A survey of the Attitudes of Selected Counselors, Administrators, and Educators in California Toward the Utilization of Paraprofessional Aides in the Pupil Personnel Services." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of the Pacific, 1971.

- Gudridge, Beatrice M. Paraprofessionals in Schools: How New Careerists Bolster Education. Arlington, Va.: National School Public Relations Association, 1972.
- Hale, James Morgan. "The Emergence of the Paraprofessional in American Public Education," Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, 1973.
- Hamilton, Andrew. "Training for 1,000,000 Plus Jobs," American Education, VIII, No. 8 (October, 1972), 8-11.
- Hartford, Ellis Ford. Education in These United States. New York: Macmillan, 1964.
- Harvey, Maria Luisa Alvarez. "Where is the Critical Period of Development for the Disadvantaged?" Illinois Schools Journal, 53 (Fall-Winter, 1973), 82-90.
- Havighurst, Robert J. The Public Schools of Chicago. Chicago: Board of Education, 1964.
- _____ and Bernice L. Neugarten. Society and Education. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1957.
- Hickerson, Nathaniel. Education for Alienation. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1966.
- Honigmann, John S. Understanding Culture. New York: Harper and Row, 1963.
- "How the Profession Feels About Teacher Aides," NEA Journal (November, 1967), 16-19.
- Howard, William. Dropouts: Prevention and Rehabilitation. Education U.S.A. Special Report, Washington, D.C.: National School Public Relations Association, 1972.
- Hudson, Reba Neil. "Perceptions of Paraprofessional Roles in Elementary Schools." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, East Texas State University, 1971.

- Mauser, August J. "The Paraprofessional--Panacea or Frankenstein?" Contemporary Education, 42 (January, 1971), 139-141.
- McCain, Lelia. "The Effect of Paraprofessional Assistance on the Academic Achievements of Migrant Children." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of the Pacific, 1973.
- McLaughlin, Barry. Learning and Social Behavior. New York: Free Press, 1971.
- Merton, Robert K. and Robert A. Nisbet. Contemporary Social Problems. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1966.
- Michael, Elizabeth. "No Conspiracy, But Let's Use Paraprofessionals Wisely," Phi Delta Kappan, LIV, No. 8 (April, 1973), 548.
- Miller, Harry L. and Marjorie B. Smiley. Education in the Metropolis. New York: Free Press, 1967.
- Miller, LaMar P. and Edmund W. Gordon, eds. Equality of Educational Opportunity. New York: AMS Press, 1974.
- Mondale, Walter F. The Effects of Dropping Out. U.S. Senate. Select Committee on Equal Educational Opportunity. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972.
- Nash, Robert J. and Russell M. Agne. "Career Education: Earning a Living or Living a Life," Phi Delta Kappan, LIV, No. 6 (February, 1973), 373-377.
- National Education Association Research Bulletin. "Teacher Aides in the Public Schools," 48 (March, 1970), 11.
- Newlin, Wayne. "It Can Be Done," Illinois Education, 56 (January, 1968), 213-216.

- Ohio Education Association. Recommended Guidelines for the Selecting, Training, Placement, Supervision, and Continuous Progress Evaluation of Educational Aides. Columbus, Ohio, 1970.
- Olivero, James and Edward Buffie. Educational Manpower. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1970.
- Orstein, Allan C. Urban Education: Student Unrest, Teacher Behaviors, and Black Power. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1972.
- Osofsky, Gilbert. The Burden of Race. New York: Harper Row, 1945.
- Passow, Harry A., ed. Education in Depressed Areas. New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1963.
- Philadelphia Federation of Teachers. "Alienation and Education," Changing Education, VI, No. 1 (Summer, 1974), 20-21.
- Polk, Kenneth and Walter E. Schafer. Schools and Delinquency. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972.
- Rees, Helen E. Deprivation and Compensatory Education: A Consideration. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1968.
- Reissman, Frank and Arthur Pearl. "Auxiliary School Personnel," The National Elementary Principal, XLVI, 6 (May, 1967).
- Rich, John Martin. Challenge and Response. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1974.
- Rich, Leslie. "Newark's 'Street People' Teachers," American Education, VIII, No. 8 (October, 1972), 31-35.
- Rist, Ray C. The Urban School: Factory for Failure. Cambridge, Mass.: Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1973.

- Rittenhouse, Carl. Paraprofessional Aides in Education. Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1972.
- Ross, Arthur M. and Herbert Hill. Employment, Race, and Poverty. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1967.
- Schein, Edgar H. and Diane W. Kommers. Professional Education: Some New Directions. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.
- Schreiber, Daniel. Holding Power/Large City School Systems. Project: School Dropouts, Washington: National Education Association, 1964.
- Seyfarth, J. T. and R. L. Canady. "Paraprofessionals in Search of an Identity," The Clearing House, 45 (December, 1970), 221-225.
- Shipp, Mary D. "Teacher Aides: A Survey," National Elementary Principal, 46 (May, 1967), 30-33.
- Silberman, Charles E. Crisis in the Classroom. New York: Random House, 1970.
- Sorokin, Pitirim A. Social and Cultural Dynamics: Fluctuation of Social Relationships, War, and Revolution, Vol. III. New York: American, 1937.
- Specht, Harry-Hawkins and Fred McGee. "The Neighborhood Sub-professional Workers," Children, 15 (November, 1968), 7-16.
- Stein, Sanford. "Culture Shock and the Classroom," Changing Education (Winter-Spring, 1974), 40.
- Stent, Madelon D., William R. Hazard and Harry N. Rivlin. Cultural Pluralism in Education: A Mandate for Change. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1973.
- Stockard, William. "Teacher Aides Employed by Merced County Schools, Merced, California," Childhood Education (May, 1968), 557.

- Stone, James C. and Donald DeNevi, eds. Teaching Multicultural Populations, by Von Nostrand Reinhold. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1971.
- Tanner, Danile and Laurel N. Tanner. "The Teacher Aides: A National Study of Confusion," Educational Leadership, 26 (May, 1969), 765-769.
- Thompson, Paul W. "Attitudes of Selected Groups Toward the Use of Paraprofessionals in the Lincoln Junior High Schools." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska, 1972.
- Toby, Jackson. "The Differential Impact of Family Disorganization," American Sociological Review, XXII (October, 1957), 505-510.
- Tyler, Ralph W. Basic Principles of Curriculum. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969.
- U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census. We the Black Americans. Washington: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1972.
- U.S. Department of Commerce. 1970 Census of Population. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.
- U.S. Department of Commerce. The Social and Economic Status of the Black Population in the United States, 1972. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.
- U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. "Community Service Grants," American Education, VIII, No. 8 (October, 1972), 3.
- U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Equality of Educational Opportunity. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966.
- U.S. Department of Labor. Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts, October, 1972. Washington: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1973.

U.S. Department of Labor. Public Service Careers Program.
Washington; U.S. Department of Labor, 1969.

Walberg, Herbert J. and Andrew T. Kopan, eds. Rethinking
Urban Education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass,
1972.

_____ and Sue Pinzur Rasher. "Public School Effective-
ness and Equality: New Evidence and Its Implica-
tions," Phi Delta Kappan, LVI, No. 1 (September,
1974), 3-9.

Webster, Staten W. The Education of Black Americans.
New York: John Day, 1974.

Weinberg, Meyer. "Chronicle of Race and Schools,"
Integrated Education, XI, No. 3 (May-June, 1973),
7-11.

Wetzel, Ralph. "Behavior Modification Techniques and the
Training of Teacher Aides," Psychology in the
Schools, VII (October, 1970), 325.

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

July 18, 1974

Dear Colleague (Administrator, Teacher):

During the past few years, the Chicago public schools have used SCHOOL-COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES, TEACHER AIDES, and CIVILIAN SECURITY AIDES as paraprofessional staff in an attempt to promote, enhance and improve the administrative and learning processes in the schools, and to provide improved communication, orientation, liaison and cooperation between the school and community.

Some of these three positions were funded through the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), some through the Emergency Employment Act (EEA), and some locally. Regardless of the funding source, there is a need to determine to what extent the use of the three paraprofessional positions herein mentioned have achieved the objectives stated above.

As an administrator or teacher who has worked with and/or supervised these paraprofessionals, you are able to make a more reliable perceptual assessment and evaluation of their use than anyone else. Therefore, we are requesting that you complete the attached questionnaires and return in the stamped self-addressed envelope. A copy of your district superintendent's approval for this assessment is also attached.

Your cooperation in completing and returning the questionnaires is highly appreciated.

Sincerely,

William M. Jones
Director
Dropout Prevention Programs

Enclosures

Please check ONE:

Administrator ☐

Teacher ☐

ADMINISTRATOR AND TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE ON
TEACHER AIDES

The services provided through the TEACHER AIDE position have been conducive to needed, significant and meaningful improvements in the learning situation and effective administration of your school.

Please indicate your assessment of this position by checking the appropriate boxes below:

1. Development of pupil learning skills.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

2. Providing a more conducive learning climate in the classroom.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

3. Development of positive student self-image.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

4. Positive changes in pupil attitude toward school.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

5. Improving student morale.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

6. Time for teacher to provide individual instruction.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

7. Teacher communication and relationships with parents.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

8. Teacher planning and implementing of innovative approaches to helping students learn.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

9. Building teacher morale.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

10. Building administrator morale.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

11. Providing a more conducive learning climate in the classroom.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

Please check ONE:

Administrator ☐

Teacher ☐

ADMINISTRATOR AND TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE ON
SCHOOL-COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES

The services provided through the SCHOOL-COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVE position have been conducive to needed, significant and meaningful improvements in the learning situation and effective administration of your school.

Please indicate your assessment of this position by checking the appropriate boxes below:

1. Student school attendance.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

2. Formation of positive student attitudes toward themselves and the school.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

3. Student use of community health, recreational and educational facilities.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

4. Reduction of student discipline problems.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

Administrator and Teacher Questionnaire
on School-Community Representatives

5. Improving student morale.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

6. Parental and other community people involvement in school council and other school-community activities.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

7. Parental and other community people involvement in establishing school educational goals.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

8. Understandings, good will and cooperation between the school, parents and other community people.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

9. Acceptance and reinforcement of the school and its program by parents and other community people.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

10. Parental financial support for the school as evidenced by vote referendums and other school-community fund raising activities.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

Please check ONE:

Administrator ☐

Teacher ☐

ADMINISTRATOR AND TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE ON
CIVILIAN SCHOOL SECURITY AIDES

The services provided through the CIVILIAN SCHOOL SECURITY AIDE position have been conducive to needed, significant and meaningful improvements in the learning situation and effective administration of your school.

Please indicate your assessment of this position by checking the appropriate boxes below:

1. Reduction of stealing and vandalism to staff automobiles parked on and near school premises.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

2. Reduction of window breakage of school building.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

3. Reduction of entering and trespassing in school building of non-desirable and unauthorized persons.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

4. Reduction of student fights in school corridors.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

Administrator and Teacher Questionnaire
on Civilian School Security Aides

5. Reduction or prevention of drug peddling on school premises.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

6. Reduction of student locker break-ins.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

7. Reduction of gang activities on school premises.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

8. Reduction of thefts in school building.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

9. Improved feelings of security and safety by staff and students.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

10. Improved staff and student morale.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

July 18, 1975

To the Parents and Other Community Adults
Interested in the Schools:

You are somewhat familiar with the jobs or work performed in the schools and community by the TEACHER AIDES, SCHOOL-COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES and CIVILIAN SCHOOL SECURITY AIDES--three existing paraprofessional positions in the Chicago public schools.

We are trying to assess the effectiveness or the extent to which these positions promote, enhance, and benefit the administrative and educative processes in your school and community.

Your experiences, observations and judgments are needed as a part of this perceptual assessment and evaluation.

In making your perceptual assessments, please use any information from records, minutes of meetings, or other written records if you may have same. Only people with some involvement in school-community affairs are requested to fill out these questionnaires. Consequently, you are highly qualified to make the perceptual assessments requested in the questionnaires.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

William M. Jones
Director
Dropout Prevention Programs

Enclosures

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE ON TEACHER AIDES

The services provided through the TEACHER AIDE position have been conducive to needed, significant and meaningful improvements in the learning situation and effective administration of your school.

Please indicate your assessment of this position by checking the appropriate boxes below:

1. Your child is more enthusiastic and has a positive attitude toward school.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

2. The teacher gives your child more individual help.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

3. Your child is more interested in his school work.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

4. You are engaging in out-of-school activities now that teacher aides are assisting in your child's education.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

5. Your child's self-image and discipline have improved.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE ON SCHOOL-COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES

The services provided through the SCHOOL-COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVE position have been conducive to needed, significant and meaningful improvements in the learning situation and effective administration of your neighborhood school.

Please indicate your assessment of this position by checking the appropriate boxes below:

1. Increased student use of community health, educational and recreational facilities.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

2. Reduction in student discipline.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

3. Increased participation and involvement of parents in school-community, and school council activities.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

4. Increased understanding, good will and cooperation between the school, parents and community people.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

5. Increased activities outside the school that assist your child in getting a better education.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE ON CIVILIAN SCHOOL SECURITY AIDES

The services provided through the CIVILIAN SCHOOL SECURITY AIDE position have been conducive to needed, significant and meaningful improvements in the learning situation and effective administration of your child's school.

Please indicate your assessment of this position by checking the appropriate boxes below:

1. Reduction in parental visits to school on discipline of the children.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

2. Reduction of gang activities on school premises.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

3. Reduction of student locker break-ins.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

4. Reduction in interpersonal conflicts between security staff and students.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

5. Reduction in student fights.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

July 18, 1974

Dear Student:

We are attempting to make a perceptual assessment on the use of certain paraprofessionals in your school, namely, TEACHER AIDES, SCHOOL-COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES and CIVILIAN SCHOOL SECURITY AIDES.

Your observations, judgments and knowledge of the effectiveness (or lack of it) of this staff is needed.

As a student, the staffing of the school is designed to promote your education.

Please complete the questionnaires to the best of your knowledge and ability.

Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

Sincerely,

William M. Jones
Director
Dropout Prevention Programs

Enclosures

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE ON TEACHER AIDES

The services provided through the TEACHER AIDE position have been conducive to needed, significant and meaningful improvements in the learning situation and effective administration of your school.

Please indicate your assessment of this position by checking the appropriate boxes below:

1. I enjoyed going to school more when the teacher aide was present.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

2. The teacher aide assisted me in learning to read better, and with my lessons also.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

3. I enjoy reading more as a result of the teacher aide's help.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

4. My teacher was able to help me more individually when the teacher aide was present.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

Student Questionnaire on
Teacher Aides

5. I sometimes get into trouble, but the teacher aide helps me to stay out of trouble.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

6. The school does a better job of educating me with the services of the teacher aide.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

7. I would like to get a job as a teacher aide when I grow up.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

8. I have a more positive attitude toward myself and the school because of the teacher aide.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE ON SCHOOL-COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES

The services provided through the SCHOOL-COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVE position have been conducive to needed, significant and meaningful improvements in the learning situation and effective administration of your school.

Please indicate your assessment of this position by checking the appropriate boxes below:

1. My parents have a better attitude toward the school as a result of the services of the school-community representative.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

2. My parents participate more in school activities since our school has had services of the school-community representative.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

3. I have had fewer discipline problems because of the services of the school-community representative.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

4. Our school is a better school because of the services of the school-community representative.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

Student Questionnaire on
School-Community Representatives

5. My parents support the school program more since we have had a school-community representative.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

6. I would like to work as a school-community representative when I get out of school.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐

Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE ON CIVILIAN SCHOOL SECURITY AIDES

The services provided through the CIVILIAN SCHOOL SECURITY AIDE position have been conducive to needed, significant and meaningful improvements in the learning situation and effective administration of your school.

Please indicate your assessment of this position by checking the appropriate boxes below:

1. Reduction of locker thefts.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

2. Reduction of window breakage.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

3. Reduction in theft and damage to faculty automobiles on school premises.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

4. Reduction or prevention of drug traffic on school premises.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

5. Reduction in trespassing and entering of building by undesirable and unauthorized persons.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

Student Questionnaire on
Civilian School Security Aides

6. Reduction in gang activities around the school.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

7. Increased feeling of safety and security by students and staff.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

8. Improved student morale.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

The next questions deal with your preference of security personnel:

9. Civilian school security aides are preferred by me to plain-clothes or uniformed policemen.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

10. Civilian school security aides are more effective in the schools than part-time policemen in civilian clothes.

Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Undecided ☐
Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Disadvantaged. Those who suffer from cultural and economic deprivation which renders them unable to take advantage of the normative opportunities open to them and enable them to meet the normative demands made on them by society. Their lifestyle is at, near, or below the poverty level.

Cultural patterns. A configuration of learned behavior and results of behavior whose component parts are shared by members of a particular group or society.

Deprived. One who lives in a condition of misfortune where there is an aura of hopelessness, despair and desolation.

Culture. The total way of life of a society or group.

Slums. The area of a city occupied by the poor, containing poor housing, over-crowding, and other deteriorating conditions.

Ghetto. Same as slums.

Poverty areas. Same as slums.

Low-income areas. Same as slums and poverty areas.

Inner city. Same as low-income areas.

The poor. The families on AFDC, welfare or employed in low-paying jobs that do not provide more than poverty level incomes.

Paraprofessionals. Teacher aides, school-community representatives, and civilian school security aides.

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by William Melrose Jones has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Melvin P. Heller, Chairman
Professor and Chairman of Administration, Loyola

Dr. Max A. Bailey
Assistant Professor of Administration, Loyola

Dr. James Smith
Professor of Administration, Loyola

Dr. Jasper J. Valenti
Professor of Administration;
Assistant Dean, Education, Loyola

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

June 5, 1975
Date


Director's Signature